

EDUCATION FORUM

VOLUME XIII

NUMBER 1

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NOVEMBER, 1948

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THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM



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Behind the By-Lines

As volume XIII is making its bow educational problems press rapidly upon the world and upon our own country. We are in the midst of rehabilitation and reconstruction not only in the physical sense but also in the intellectual and moral realm. Education, sorely wounded by war and the difficult days which have followed, needs to re-examine itself to determine its fundamental principles, problems and directions. As the primary opinion-making agency in the world, the school must make certain of old foundations and of new plans which must be built into the national structures of the world.

America, no less than other nations, must plot her directions. Pledged to the democratic state and democratic procedures, she is faced with the problem of making them effective in her citizenship and with combatting the opposing tendencies. American schools have always been the reliance of our republic in furthering the welfare of the people. This will be even more true in the future.

THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM has devoted itself to discussions of the philosophy of education and the larger issues underlying a sound educational program. This direction will be continued in the present volume.

The Laureate article for this issue has been prepared by John W. Studebaker, for fourteen years U. S. Commissioner of Education, who resigned in July to become Vice President and Chairman of the Editorial Board of *Scholastic Magazines*. *Federal Relations to Education* is his important topic. Dr. Studebaker has crusaded for *An American Way* believing "We in America must rebuild our democratic system of managing ourselves. Education can show the way."

Last spring H. C. Dent, editor-in-chief of *The Educational Supplement of The Times* (London, England) spent some weeks in America studying various school systems and lecturing at colleges and universities. Mr. Dent has been a prominent figure in the recent development of the educational program in England. He is the author of several volumes on education including "The Education Act, 1944" "A New Order in English Education," and (last year) "To Be a Teacher." His present article is intentionally informal and he has given it the title, *A Visitor's Impressions of the United States*.

Admirably supplementing Mr. Dent's article is one by I. L. Kandel, on the subject *American and English Education Compared*. Since retiring as Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University in 1947, Dr. Kandel has been in England where he is now Professor of American Studies at the University of Manchester. He is editor of *School and Society* and of the recently established *Universities Quarterly*. Dr. Kandel writes understandingly with wide first-hand acquaintanceship with education in England as well as in America.

Education of Spanish Youth is a comprehensive discussion of secondary education. The authors are Robert Holmes Beck, Assistant Professor of Educational Philosophy, University of Minnesota, and Marjorie Ann Carlson. Miss Carlson visited Spain for three months during 1947 under the auspices of *Student Project for Amity Among Nations*, an organization of the University of Minnesota which sponsors travel and study for superior students. Miss Carlson collected information and documents, and collaborated with Professor

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THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

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Federal Relations to Education

JOHN W. STUDEBAKER

IN A RECENT address to the members of a university graduating class, Mr. David Lilienthal, Chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission, is reported to have said that every citizen who could afford to do so and to whom the opportunity might be offered should undertake at some time in his life as a matter of civic obligation to serve the people in a public office. Having recently completed a tour of public duty extending over a period of nearly fourteen years as U. S. Commissioner of Education I shall undertake in this article to record some of the views I have come to hold by reason of this experience in public office.

I

Let me begin by saying that I came to the Commissionership in 1934 with a background of experience of several years as superintendent of schools in a progressive midwestern city. There I had been accustomed to think of public education as the veritable shield and

the symbol of our democracy. I had thought of the public school system, supported by the taxes of all, as having for its major purpose the development of a liberty-loving citizenry that would be competent to judge of the merits of social, political and economic issues and to pool their judgments in an alert and informed public opinion. I knew that Washington, Madison, Jefferson and other American statesmen had held firm convictions concerning the unique and vital relationship of education to the success of the republican form of government.

I knew that the constitutional or legal provisions of all States were such as to provide for the establishment and control of educational systems designed to be free of capture by partisan political spoilsmen or from undue influence by minority pressure groups, to the end that the controlling objective of public education might be achieved in the liberation of the minds of men and women, so that they would be prepared, as free

Americans, freely to decide upon the merits of ideological controversies or of selfish factional issues alike. I was sincerely committed to the proposition that if the major purpose of the American public schools was to train Americans for the duties and privileges of citizenship, then there must be no divorcement of responsibility from authority in the administration of schools. The people's representatives on elected school boards must not only be held accountable but they must by the people be given the means to make certain that the schools are capable of performing their unique and indispensable function.

I knew, of course, that under our Constitution, by implication of the Tenth Amendment, the control and administration of education had long been regarded as exclusively reserved to the people of the several States. I knew that, although under the welfare clause of the Constitution the Congress had many times acted to assist the States in the establishment and maintenance of educational programs, this assistance had carried with it little control of the processes of education, or of the curriculum or the personnel of the schools and colleges of the several States.

II

With this background of experience and with these convictions concerning the unique and indispensable function of education in a democratic society, I was almost immediately, upon becoming U. S. Commissioner of Education, confronted with an issue of national scope and significance involving education. For

in 1934, in the depths of depression with thousands of unemployed youth roaming the country, it was fairly obvious that the Federal Government must act to meet the youth problem. The States alone, unaided seemed powerless to act. The Government was, I thought, faced with two alternatives: either to work with and through the State authorities and their established and far-flung youth agencies, i.e., the schools and colleges, to enable these young people to return to the most profitable employment possible for the most of them, i.e. continued investment of time and energy in self-improvement through education; or else to set up new youth agencies, separate and apart from the schools and colleges, staffed with Federal appointees who should undertake to develop made-work projects for the employment of these same youth. I urgently recommended the first of these two alternatives; but the final decision in Washington favored the latter and the National Youth Administration was brought into being, largely, I am convinced, because Mr. Harry Hopkins had succeeded in convincing the President that it meant many Federal jobs for deserving supporters of the Administration. This entire Federal organization finally collapsed.

Again in 1939-40, the Nation was faced with an emergency. We were confronted with the necessity of expanding our productive mechanism to become the arsenal of democracy; and soon thereafter to turn out the ships and planes and guns with which to defend our liberties and, indeed, our very national ex-

istence against the onslaughts of the Nazi-Fascist aggressors. In this second emergency, the President and the Congress followed a different course. Funds were made available to the U. S. Office of Education and channeled through the State educational and college authorities to the local school systems of several States for the training of defense workers (some 14,000,000 of them before war ended) in the vocational schools and classes of the States, and in the colleges and universities throughout the Nation. In this decision, political considerations gave way to an impelling national need and to a recognition of the vitality which resides in our traditional decentralization of responsibility. This program left existing State and local educational agencies greatly strengthened for their tasks of the future.

I cite these two instances of Federal programs involving education, because they seem to me to illustrate two things: first, that the schools and colleges of the several States are properly regarded in time of national emergency as a resource of primary importance; and second, that the national interest will be best served when Federal participation in education is through the regularly constituted educational systems of the several States, set about as they are by safeguards against control by partisans. And that brings me to some observations on the subject of Federal aid to education in the States.

III

Since the turn of the twentieth century, the expansion of the American educational system has been the marvel

of the world. The schools and colleges of the States today enroll one-fifth of our population. They employ more than a million teachers. They represent a capital investment of 13 billion dollars. Annual operating expenditures run at the rate of more than 5 billion dollars. Next to expenditures to pay for the past wars or preparation against future war, educational expenditures rank highest of all items of governmental outlay.

Encouraging as has been the physical expansion of public education much remains to be accomplished if it is to perform its unique and indispensable function in our democratic polity. At the present time, many of our States are facing grave difficulties in providing educational opportunities that are both universally available and effectively free. More than 1½ million children between the ages of 6 and 16 are not enrolled in any school. Millions of others are housed in antiquated school buildings, ill-equipped and without modern instructional aids. The shortage of well-qualified teachers continues acute, especially in many disadvantaged rural areas. Far too many youth today find that educational opportunity for them is non-existent because of their place of birth, race or parents' low income. By permitting these gross inequalities of educational opportunity to persist as between the States and their various local subdivisions we continue to deny to millions of young people their proper chance in life and to the Nation a vast amount of competence it sorely needs. Numerous studies have made clear that these inequalities can be remedied only

by Federal financial participation in the support of a minimum program of education in every State.

Eventually the solution of the problem of educational underprivilege in economically disadvantaged areas may be found in measures to improve the economic well-being of whole States and regions. Meanwhile there is need for Federal participation in the support of education itself in many States. Especially is the need for such participation apparent today when the Nation is facing crucial world responsibilities at the very time when our educational system is in danger of deterioration rather than improvement. Preservation of our democratic way of life, continued improvement of our standards of living, our leadership in world affairs—these all call for a forward-looking and generously conceived Federal program of assistance to the States in financing education.

IV

Why has the Congress been hesitant to act in meeting this obvious need? Chiefly, it would appear due to the fear that Federal aid would weaken the independence of the States in the control of their educational systems. Yet my personal study of this issue of Federal control from the vantage point of the U. S. Commissionership leads me to the firm conviction that Congress could, if it would, provide financial aid to the States without objectionable controls. Honest expenditure of funds for the purposes voted will always be the object of Congressional solicitude. I believe, however, that the observance of

two simple principles in the drafting of new Federal aid legislation will avoid the dangers of Federal interference in State control of education: The first principle is that the aided purposes should be stated in broad general terms. The national interest involves education in the broadest sense—at elementary, secondary and higher levels of schooling. It involves medical education, business education, professional education, labor education, legal education—and a host of other special fields. It involves all types of learners, young and old, rich and poor, male and female, white and Negro. Consequently Federal aid, except for temporary, stimulative purposes, should not be restricted to any particular school level or phase of education or type of learner, unless in so restricting the aid it is clearly understood that the intention is to purchase by means of Federal subsidy a controlling interest in the achievement of a particular result. If Congress were clearly to realize that the more general and unrestricted the educational purposes for which Federal aid is made available, the greater the freedom of the States themselves to make choices of those objects of educational expenditure which will in the judgment of their people assure the provision of the best possible educational program, then the autonomy of the States and their subdivisions would surely be amply safeguarded. Conversely, the more specific the purpose to be served by the Federal grant to the States the more likely becomes Federal control of the States' administration of education.

The second principle which will in my judgment obviate some of the danger of Federal controls accompanying Federal aid to the States is a corollary of the first. Federal grants in aid should be distributed on the basis of an objective formula written into the law. For if no discretionary authority is given any Federal administrative official to pass upon the wisdom of the particular objects of educational expenditure selected by any State, then it is only necessary to arrive at a just and equitable basis of distribution which can be incorporated in law as a mathematical formula.

It may be argued, of course, that once the States have become dependent upon Federal financial aid to any considerable extent, the fear of Federal withdrawal of such aid would make for political subservience by State educational personnel to the party in control of Congress. But this argument has validity only to the extent that Federal aid is for specific rather than general purposes. Were any political party in control of Congress to withdraw general Federal aid, it would of course do so only at the hazard of the adverse reaction of the people at the polls. In other words, if the majority of voters were insistent on continued Federal aid to education without Federal control, whatever party might be in power in Congress would hardly dare to flout the people's expressed convictions.

V

So much for some brief observations concerning Federal aid to education born

of my experience as U. S. Commissioner of Education. Let me turn now finally to another matter that is near to my heart and upon which I have had some opportunity to form a judgment. That is the role of the U. S. Office of Education in any program for improvement of education in the States.

When I came to the Commissionership in 1934, the Office of Education was some sixty-seven years old. In spite of the efforts of previous Commissioners, all able and devoted men, the Office of Education was a rather minor bureau in one of the larger Federal departments, the Interior Department. Its staff consisted of seventy-three professional people, supplemented by sixty-nine clerks and stenographers. Its annual budget for salaries and expenses, exclusive of vocational rehabilitation and exclusive of grants in aid to the States, was \$529,520. With little more than token resources, the Office of Education was attempting to discharge its statutory obligation to collect and disseminate information and facts concerning the school systems of the States and methods of teaching that would "aid the people in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." The fact is that there did not exist then, nor does there yet exist an adequately equipped Federal education office.

The Office is now tied into another sprawling agency and educational activities of the Federal Government affecting the schools and colleges of the States in varying degree are scattered through

many departmental bureaus and independent agencies. These other governmental agencies continue to carry on their educational activities in relation to the schools and colleges of the States, a few earlier ones having been discontinued only to be replaced by others. In my judgment this is chiefly because of the same Congressional fear of undue Federal influence or possible interference with the autonomy of educational controls in the States that has been responsible for the long delay in enactment of Federal aid to education. The members of Congress do not appear to be aware that powerful Federal influences are being brought to bear on education in the States by reason of the activities of numerous Federal Government agencies whose programs affect the schools and colleges in major respects. Perhaps the report of the Hoover Commission will bring to the attention of the Congress recommendations for consolidation of educational activities of the Federal Government at fewer points where they can be more easily seen and evaluated. I sincerely hope so.

One thing which would become clearer, were this to be done, is the desirability of providing independent status for the Office of Education, with its own Board whose members would serve for long, overlapping terms. Such a Board should have duties that would include the election of a professional educator to serve as Commissioner of Education and the establishment of policies for the Office, thus removing the Office of Education from the main highway of partisan political control as is

the case in many of the States and in the large majority of local communities. At the same time the establishment of an adequate U. S. Office of Education as an independent office would do much to provide a clear, strong, representative voice for education not alone in Washington but throughout the country—a voice that could be heard in behalf of education as the catalytic and teleological agent of a dynamic democratic society in which, in the words of former President Hoover, "the rights of man to freedom are personal with him from the Creator, not from the State."

And so by reason of my tour of duty as U. S. Commissioner of Education I have become more firmly than ever convinced that the cause of education is the cause of human liberty, and as such, must be kept clearly independent of partisan political controls, answerable as directly as possible to the broad interests of the people themselves in local communities in the States and in the Federal Government—a kind of fourth dimension of government, if you please, whose function it is to assure the utmost freedom of men and women to seek and find the truth. No better statement of the rationale underlying this conviction as to the place of education in a free system could be found than that contained in dissenting opinions of Justice Brandeis and Chief Justice Holmes in *Gilbert vs. Minnesota* (254 U. S. Reports 325), when they said:

"Those who won our independence believed that the final end of the state was to make men free to develop their faculties; and that in its government the deliberative

forces should prevail over the arbitrary. They valued liberty both as an end and as a means. They believed liberty to be the secret of happiness, and courage the secret of liberty. They believed that freedom to think as you will and speak as you think are means indispensable to the discovery and spread of political truth; that without free speech and assembly, discussion would be futile; that with them discussion affords ordinarily adequate protection against the dissemination of noxious doctrine; that the greatest menace to freedom is an inert people; that public discussion is a political duty; and that this should be a fundamental principle of the American government. They recognized the risks to which all human institutions are subject. But they

knew that order cannot be secured merely through fear of punishment for its infraction; that it is hazardous to discourage thought, hope and imagination; that fear breeds repression; that repression breeds hate; that hate menaces stable government; that the path of safety lies in the opportunity to discuss freely supposed grievances and proposed remedies; and that the fitting remedy for evil counsels is good ones. Believing in the power of reason as applied through public discussion, they eschewed silence coerced by law—the argument of force in its worst form. Recognizing the occasional tyrannies of governing majorities, they amended the Constitution so that free speech and assembly should be guaranteed."

The true teacher, he who goes forth to his pupils, who enters into their spirit so that he conceives their difficulties and helps them from near by, is called upon for duties which to the inexperienced appear simple and easily performed, but are indeed of a perplexing and exhausting nature. All sympathetic action is taxing to the strength of men. When we go forth to another, making his life our own, we attain our end by ways of exceeding difficulty, by paths which are not beaten, which can be travelled only by patient ingenuity. The teacher must clearly understand the nature of his pupil. He attains his end, if he wins it at all, by vigilant and unceasing attention to every sign which may guide his endeavors. No guide who seeks to bring his charge up the most difficult mountain need be so watchful of his actions as the teacher. He gives away his life to perform his task if he be born to his calling.—The Autobiography of Nathaniel Southgate Shaler, pp. 364-65.

Listening to a Steel Guitar

RICHARD L. LOUGHLIN



Hawaiian love-notes float from trembling strings
To taper into virgin space—glorious
As Diana's borrowed veil—luminous
As her mirror, silvered with the bright springs
Of Alban's templed grove for pagan rite.
The gypsy winds rush breathless through the trees
Telling each palm and whispering satyr Sea's
Affair with Sand, a tale of love's delight.
These things, these throbbing things are marked for death;
They cannot shake the soil from off their souls;
Must take the worm's blind hand and cherish clay,
And yet, poor I, with penitential breath
Or contrite deeds can cleanse my grimy scrolls
Of sin and be sustained on Judgment Day.

A Visitor's Impressions of the United States

H. C. DENT

I HAVE been invited by the Editor to record in the EDUCATIONAL FORUM some impressions of my brief visit last spring to the United States—my first visit to your great country. I accepted the more readily because it was he who in the first instance made this visit possible.

I am relieved, though, that Dr. Williams has asked only for "impressions." It would be sheer impertinence for anyone without previous first-hand knowledge of the United States to attempt to dogmatise about American life, thought or education on the strength of a hurried tour of only five weeks' duration. Not that I should ever be presumptuous enough to do this.

I

My travels carried me into nine States, where I saw something (though not enough in most cases) of between 20 and 30 cities, large and small, and of the countryside between. But what is that by comparison with the vastness of your total area and the multitude of your inhabited places? Five-sixths at least of the United States remains completely unknown to me; all the West and the South, and a good deal of the East and the Middle West, which were the scenes of my journeyings.

I am in no doubt as to how I should—indeed, must—begin: with a heartfelt

tribute of gratitude for the unforced and invariable friendliness and the almost overwhelmingly generous hospitality I received from everyone wherever I went. That goes not only for the university, college and school administrators, teachers and students whom I met, so to speak, professionally, but also for the hotel receptionists and waiters, the taxi and bus drivers, the railroad and airway officials, the café and shop assistants with whom I made casual contact, and the innumerable other people whose help I solicited in streets, depots and suchlike public places. Never once did I receive anything but the most courteous, and usually the most friendly, assistance.

I want, if I may, to emphasise this, not merely because it gives me another opportunity to say how grateful I was (and still am), but also as counter to the opinion, not infrequently to be heard in more than one European country—and sometimes voiced by your own people—that Americans tend to be brusque, uncouth and even discourteous in their dealings with strangers. My experience was quite the opposite.

I will not dwell at length upon that topic of world-wide interest: food—or the lack of it. Readers of the EDUCATIONAL FORUM, particularly those who have visited any European country since the war, will appreciate that to anyone

domiciled east of the Atlantic the United States must seem a land flowing literally with milk and metaphorically with honey. I will epitomise my experience of the whole of the material side of life by saying that to me the keynote seemed to be rich abundance.

That typifies your educational plant. I had read, and been told, about your university and college campuses, but I confess that my first sight of them left me breathless. My previous mental picture did not nearly measure up to the reality; I had an utterly inadequate idea of the number, size and dignity of the buildings and of the large and lovely open spaces around which they are so frequently set. Incidentally, is every other college campus the "most beautiful in the States"? I had to steer a most cautious course between the many competing claims to this honour! Happily, I could gladly acknowledge the superb beauty of all the competitors.

I was less surprised at, but not less envious of, the lavish and varied equipment I saw. I was particularly envious of the many finely housed and well-stocked libraries; it sounded almost unbelievable to hear librarians complaining of inadequacy when they had anything from 100,000 to a quarter of a million books on their shelves. The periodical collections, too, struck me as being rich beyond imagining; one librarian told me he received 1,800 newspapers and periodicals from all parts of the world.

Your scientific and technological apparatus in many establishments seemed to me to be superb. I would like to com-

ment here especially upon the vocational High Schools which, thanks to the courtesy of the Editor of the EDUCATIONAL FORUM and Mr. E. L. Bowsher, the Superintendent of Schools, I was privileged to visit in Toledo, Ohio. These seemed to be models of what we should like the technical secondary schools we are developing to be.

II

I saw far fewer elementary and secondary schools than I should have liked, but enough to get a general idea of the best among them in the Middle West, and to form some sort of a basis of comparison with our English primary and secondary schools. Here again, as with the universities and colleges, the buildings and equipment were generally better than those of English schools, though not a few of our schools built shortly before the war can compare favourably, and as a rule have more extensive playing fields. Their cloakroom and lavatory provision is also, I think, superior; and in a few, designed by architects of imagination, both the interior lay-out and the colour schemes are, to my mind, better.

You will observe that I am making comparison only between the best buildings in each of our countries. I know, of course, that you have many inferior buildings—I read Ben Fine's hair-raising book *Your Children are Cheated* while I was in the States. So have we; and we are equally ashamed of them. Let's leave it at that.

There are not, so far as I could judge from my few and brief visits to schools,

any very great differences between your primary departments and ours, except that with us the age of compulsory attendance begins one year earlier—at 5 instead of 6—and that we make, relatively, far more provision in nursery schools and classes for children under the age of 5. Your nursery or kindergarten rooms are furnished in much the same way as ours and the children I saw were engaged upon much the same sort of activities. The same can be said about the classrooms and work for the children between 7 and 12. On the whole, I got the impression that the teaching throughout the primary department was somewhat more formal and academic than is today normally the case in English schools—but this may be a quite inaccurate generalization from too few examples.

At the secondary stage we diverge widely, so widely in fact that it seems to me useless to attempt comparisons. I don't want to be mistaken about this—as I have already been once in my own country. A few days ago one of the friends I made in America, who was attending a university summer school in Britain, asked me in front of an audience whether I thought English educationists could learn anything from the American comprehensive High School. I replied that I could discover no direct lessons as regard the content or organisation of the curriculum—and discovered later that I had given several people—both American and British—the impression that I was not in favour of the comprehensive school.

That was far from what I meant.

What I said was that both the social problem you were trying to solve through the comprehensive school and the structure of the curriculum you had built for it were so completely different from ours that I could not see any *direct* lessons were to be learned about either. I emphasised the word "direct," for indirectly it seems to me that both sides could learn much from each other. Your administrative structure, for example, is much more highly organised. I would like to express my particular admiration of what I saw of your counselling service. We expect our teachers to give personal guidance to pupils in the intervals of their teaching duties, which has never struck me as being a sound procedure. On the other hand I should say that the personal relationships between British teachers and pupils are probably more cordial and comradely than those obtaining generally in your schools. This, I must add, is a recent development with us; when I was at school, some 40 years ago, the reverse was the case. Nothing has been more encouraging in English education than to see the relations between pupils and teachers change from mutual fear and suspicion to frank and friendly co-operation.

III

I must say that I prefer the British practice of segregating in separate schools children who because of severe physical or mental disability require special educational treatment, rather than what I understand is the normal practice with you, of putting such children into special classes in the elementary or high

school. I keep this opinion despite the fact that quite the finest piece of classroom work I saw during my visit was being done by a woman teacher with a class of backward children. It was really brilliant, but I still cannot resist the conviction that the effects of her superb technique and understanding sympathy would have been deeper and more permanent had those children been in their own school, and not compelled to mix (at a disadvantage) with their mental superiors directly they got outside their classrooms.

I liked what I saw of your school lunch service immensely; the prices were low, the food was excellent and the organisation good. Comparison with British practice is difficult, because the aims of the respective services appear to be different. Yours, if I understood it aright, is to provide an amenity: a plentifully varied cafeteria, at prices within pupils' means, where children may pick and choose as pleases them. Ours, at present, is to provide a supplement to children's rations, with the object of conserving and improving their health and strength. Consequently a set meal is served, calculated to supply necessary vitamins, protein and calories.

The midday meal at school in Britain, and the mid-morning ration of milk, are in fact elements in the national Health Service, which includes also medical inspection and treatment of all kinds. I understand that your provision for medical attention to school children varies widely according to State and district, so all I can usefully say is that I saw some school clinics that were in

every respect as good as the best of ours (which are very good indeed) and one, at a teacher training college, containing research equipment which I believe has not yet reached Britain. But I saw no evidence of such a systematic and thoroughgoing medical service, embracing all children and without direct cost to parents, as obtains today in Britain.

IV

To pass to higher education, we have no institutions comparable with your degree-granting four-year colleges. We have a small number (at present four) of what we call university colleges, which prepare students for the external degrees of London University but have not the right to grant their own degrees. I feel it a great lack that we have nothing corresponding to your liberal arts college. I saw several of these, in both the Mid-West and the East, and was most favourably impressed.

Nor have we in Britain anything like the number (relative to the total population) or the variety of universities. I am not so sure that this is a lack. The question is complicated by the fact that your conception of the function of a university is so much broader than ours. Except in the field of medicine we hardly admit the idea of professional schools, despite the fact that many, perhaps most, of our undergraduate students attend the university primarily in order to obtain a professional status; and we certainly would not admit that many of the techniques you teach in universities are fit subjects for university study.

A second main difference is that our

universities have an almost entirely undergraduate population. There is always a small proportion of students doing post-graduate work, but the idea of a university where the number in the graduate schools is greater than that of undergraduates is quite alien to us. It has been mooted but has never received much support. This again I feel to be our loss.

For reasons that will have become obvious in the last two paragraphs our universities are much smaller than yours so often are. We have nothing remotely comparable with your University of California, which has, I am told, 42,000 students on nine campuses, or even with Columbia University's 30,000. The nearest in size is London, today (thanks to post-war expansion) numbering about 17,000, and I am sure that most of us in Britain agree with Abraham Flexner in not being able to regard London as being a University in the normal sense of the term at all. Despite a 50 per cent post-war increase in numbers of students, our universities still range from about 7,000 down to 1,500.

V

All these differences (and there are many more) accentuated for me the dominant impression I received during my visit: how unlike our two peoples are, and yet, if I may dare to suggest it, how complementary. It is in a very real sense a great pity that we speak and write the same language—or at least two languages so similar as to appear the same! But I for one would not have it otherwise, for it does enable us to get

together without preliminary linguistic struggles, and to exchange ideas without more than occasional recourse to an interpreter.

This, I think, is tremendously valuable but also very dangerous, because the similarity of language tends to induce the idea that we are very similar peoples. Nothing, to my mind, could be further from the truth, and we shall never come to a real understanding of each other unless we recognise this. I cannot possibly express to you in words how much of a stranger I felt in your land during my first two weeks there (I almost wrote "fortnight," but remembered just in time that you do not use this word). Surrounded as I was with friendship and able to understand practically every word I heard or read, I yet found almost every detail of living different—and indicative of a different attitude to life.

These differences are not all superficial. For example, I found the many informal conversations I had with small groups of people most enjoyable and exhilarating, but I also found them very exhausting because of the rapidity with which you move from topic to topic. The European mind is not accustomed to these swift transitions; it loves to linger over each topic, examining this and that aspect of it, weighing and balancing the pros and cons. So I felt perpetually like the last runner in an obstacle race, straining every effort to catch up with those in front of me yet never quite succeeding.

This fundamental difference in thought process appears to me to explain

very largely the radically different ways in which we build our curricula for schools, colleges and universities (it is, of course, also a result of the different curricular structures). And I seem to see it as a natural—probably inevitable—derivative from our respective histories and environments. Much of the misplaced mutual criticism one reads in the press and hears in conversation is an unhappy result of ignoring the fact that, with such completely different histories and environments, we cannot expect to think and live alike.

I would like to conclude as I began, with a tribute; this time to the boys and girls I met in your colleges and universities. Most of the audiences I addressed were student bodies; and I

could not have wished for better audiences. Even when attendance was compulsory, as it often was, there was not the slightest sign of inattention, or indeed of anything but eager interest. And the questions! They came in floods, not least at the college where I had been warned previously that the students might be too shy to ask any. I want to see hundreds and thousands of these keen, able and interested young people come over to Britain, to see for themselves and to ask more questions; and equal numbers of our young people—who, believe me, are just as keen, able and interested—over in the States. There could be, to my mind, no better way in which to bring about genuine understanding between our peoples.

ON SMALL CLASSES

Teachers of all faiths should unite to insure that classes in "strategic" subjects, however small, be kept alive. The plea from management that such classes are not "solvent" is absurd, representing as it does a basing of school administration upon banking principles instead of upon the wisdom of the ages. Determined writing by authoritative pens is in order on this vital matter of maintaining essential opportunities for the most promising student elements, with emphasis throughout on quality, not quantity, production. Happily not all schools are factories, though many are headed directly toward that consummation.—A. M. Withers

American and English Education Compared

I. L. KANDEL

I

THE TITLE of this article immediately raises the question as to what can be compared when an attempt is made to institute comparisons of the educational systems of two countries. It is obvious that each nation has the educational system that it wants and the reason has been well stated by Robert Bridges:

since each group as it rose was determin'd apart
by conditions of life which none other could share,
by climate, language, and historic tradition.

The differences in culture and civilisation must be taken into account in any attempt to compare national systems of education, if the reasons for the differences in education are to be understood. This statement applies as much to nations that speak the same language as to nations that speak different languages. It is because the educational system of a nation reflects its culture, ideals, and aspirations, that all nations are particularly sensitive to criticisms by foreign observers. There also results from this fact the tendency to evaluate the educational system of another country by the standards of one's own. The differences between American and English education cannot be understood without an intelligent appreciation of their social and cultural backgrounds.

George Bernard Shaw once remarked that England and the United States are two countries divided by a common language. Because the language of the two countries is the same there is a tendency to expect that the culture and civilisation must be the same. Hence the small irritations that arise between the two countries. The Englishman tends to smile at the American accent, while he overlooks the differences in the accents in his own country; the American tends to ridicule the English accent as something affected and assumed, while he takes pride in the fact that an American language has actually been developed. The American, because his ancestors once shook off the shackles of an aristocracy, refuses to believe that England has in the meantime become a democracy. The Englishman, because his concept of democracy is still mainly political, fails to understand the social concept of democracy which has been characteristic of the United States. Neither the Englishman nor the American can see that each is guilty of a certain feature of national character so pertinently described in the following stanza from "The Belle of New York," a musical comedy popular in both countries in the early years of this century:—

Our virtues continue to strike us
As qualities magnificent to see.
Of course you could never be like us,
But be as like us as you're able to be.

There is a refusal on both sides to realize that, though sprung from the same stock and enjoying in many ways the same heritage, differences in culture and civilization have developed, and that those who live differently tend to think differently.

II

American character was moulded by the necessity of constantly meeting the new situations which arose in the conquest of the frontier. This conquest demanded initiative and resourcefulness on the part of the individual. Traditional ways of action and modes of thought had to give way to constant experimentation with the new and continuous adaptations to changing conditions. The great resources and the unlimited opportunities of a new and still to be developed country cultivated a certain optimism and buoyancy of mind. Because the conquest of the frontier offered opportunities for individual energy and resourcefulness, there was gradually developed a self-confidence which was impossible in more highly class-stratified societies. Because new conditions had constantly to be met by new methods in the conquest of nature, the one tradition that emerged was to have no traditions. The Republic was founded on the ideals of freedom and equality; class-stratification disappeared in a situation in which each individual had ample opportunities to show that he was as good as, if not better than, any other individual. Out of the ideal of political equality and the conditions which provided equal opportunity for all, there emerged the common man. The contrast between the new and the old

has been succinctly stated by an American historian as follows:

Whereas Washington devoted his attention to bringing his garden to an exquisite perfection, the men of the thirties and forties sought novelty rather than perfection.

This characteristic of the American, already noted in the 1830's by De Tocqueville, has continued to be the dominant characteristic of the American mind, which is constantly devoted to seeking adaptations to changing conditions, but, paradoxically, in all aspects of life except the political. The Constitution, though subject to amendment, is the only tradition that the American refuses to change without considerable resistance.

In turning to an analysis of English character the contrast has been well summarised in the following stanza from Henry Van Dyke's poem, "America For Me":

I know that Europe's beautiful, yet something seems to lack;
The past is always with her and the people looking back,
But the glory of the present is to make the future free;
We love our land for what she is, and what she is to be.

The United States is young; English character has been moulded in the course of centuries. Precedent, tradition, form, play a far greater part in England than in the United States. As contrasted with American character, the English is stable, conservative, and resistant to change. And yet there is a readiness to compromise, but the acceptance of the new is slow and gradual and, even when

it is accepted, it is fitted into the old forms. It is for this reason that the American, who is not as familiar as he should be with the political changes in England during the last half century, tends to look upon English institutions as static.

While the common man in the United States was emerging into self-consciousness of status, the Industrial Revolution resulted in England in the development of the two nations which Disraeli deplored in his novel, "Sibyl." The consequences of this development have not yet been eliminated, despite the political emancipation of the masses. The ideal of equality of educational opportunity, one of the earliest manifestations of American democracy, has only just been accepted as a guide for educational policy in England.

III

In a country which the foreigner is apt to consider materialistic and nothing more, education is the best manifestation of American idealism. Faith in education and the provision of equality of educational opportunity were ideals which were accepted soon after the Republic was established. The reason for such acceptance was stated by George Washington in his "Farewell Address" in 1796:

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

This has, indeed, been the major emphasis repeated by the "Builders of

American Democracy" from Washington's day to the present. (See U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1940. Expressions on Education by Builders of American Democracy.)

While the States of the young Republic were beginning to lay the foundations of their educational systems, England long rejected the idea of the public provision of education and left it to voluntary organisations. And when the voluntary system began to be supplemented by publicly maintained elementary schools, the United States had by 1874 already advanced to the provision of free public secondary education for all, and of higher education for those competent to meet the standards of admission. While the number of "Public Schools" in England was beginning to be increased for the privileged classes, the American public school had already come to be accepted as "a school established by the public—supported chiefly or entirely by the public, controlled by the public, and accessible to the public upon terms of equality, without special charge for tuition." Public secondary schools were not to emerge in England until the beginning of the present century.

The difference in the historical development of the two systems had another result. The American system was unitary from the start, beginning first with the elementary school (later the kindergarten), leading to the high school, and thence to the college and university. The English system developed without any plan; new types of schools were added, as the need arose, but without any articulation between

them. The idea of a unitary, planned system has only just emerged and still remains to be put into effect.

If English education still bears the marks of its tradition of formalism, American education, despite the emphasis on change and adaptation to new needs, has also been affected by the practices of the past. In both countries this was due to the late development of adequate systems of teacher preparation. In England the disciplinary concept of education has not entirely disappeared; in the United States the reliance on textbooks introduced at a time when teachers were relatively untrained has survived and has not been discarded everywhere.

In both countries there is widespread opposition to uniformity and educational prescriptions. Contrasted with highly centralised authorities for education, which in other countries dictate all the details of the content and methods of instruction, it is difficult to determine in England or the United States the sources of educational policy. In the United States a large part has been played by professional organisations, by teachers colleges and schools of education, and by public demand. In England it is only recently that professional organisations have assumed a position of leadership, while the contribution of institutes or schools of education is still something to be expected in the future.

One result of this difference is that in the United States, where there is a wealth of research on all aspects of education, theory is often ahead of practice, whereas in England theory has grown out of practice. Progressive theories of

education are first tried out in private schools and then spread to the public schools in the United States. English teachers have in the past been hesitant in accepting new ideas and it is again only recently that a certain receptivity has emerged. The American, since he is not wedded to tradition, tends to be captivated by innovations in education as in everything else and the educational pendulum tends to swing from one extreme to another. School practice in England is modified slowly, as may be illustrated by reference to the last "Handbook of Suggestions for the Consideration of Elementary School Teachers," published by the Board of Education in 1937. Progressive ideas are accepted in this volume but not at the expense of what is considered to be good in the traditional practices. Education in both countries is marked by variety within a common framework.

IV

Generally speaking, however, there are greater differences between individual schools in England than in the United States, where the differences are more marked between local systems of schools. In other words, the headmaster or headmistress of an English school enjoys greater freedom than does the principal of an American school.

The fact that the administration and provision of education in the United States has been left to each of the 48 states, which vary in size, distribution of population, economy and wealth, makes it difficult to compare them with those of England. In both countries, however, there is strong opposition to control of

education by a central national authority. In England the development of a national system of education was long delayed because of fear of central control, and, when the foundations were laid at the beginning of the present century for a national system of education, a great measure of freedom was allowed to the local education authorities in such matters as curriculum and methods of instruction. The influence of the Board of Education was exercised indirectly through grant regulations and by means of suggestions rather than by mandate and prescription. The American tradition was built up by local administration and state aid and control came later.

In both countries it has been definitely realized that a greater measure of direction of policy but without interference with local autonomy must be entrusted to a central national authority, if the ideal of ensuring equality of educational opportunity to every boy and girl irrespective of accident of residence is to be implemented everywhere. In England the Education Act of 1944 has given greater powers of determining policy to the Ministry of Education, which in turn is assuming a larger share in the financial support of education. In the United States a movement to secure greater participation by the Federal Government in the provision of funds for education began about 30 years ago. Although Federal funds for various special types of education, mainly vocational, have been provided and are constantly increasing, proposals to provide Federal funds to equalize educational opportunities and to establish reasonable standards throughout the country have

been resisted in the past through fear of Federal control. The bills which have been introduced in Congress more recently to provide Federal aid for education have included definite provisions to protect the States against interference by a Federal authority. At present both the Democratic and Republican parties are agreed on a policy of Federal aid, and it may not be long before such a bill will be enacted for the support of elementary and secondary education. In view of the current demands, a Commission on Higher Education, appointed by President Truman, has recommended that Federal funds should also be provided to assist the colleges and universities of the country. In both countries the importance of greater expenditure of funds for the support of all types of education, including the promotion of research, has been recognised as a matter of national interest. In both countries the principle is widely accepted that the distribution of national funds should be accompanied by a minimum of control and prescription.

V

The chief difficulty in both countries in implementing the ideal of equality of educational opportunity comes from the persistence of the tradition of local control. In the United States there existed only 20 years ago about 127,000 separate local administrative bodies for education, with more members on the boards of education or school committees in some States than there were teachers, and ranging in size from localities with a single teacher school to a system like that of New York City with about

36,000 teachers. There has been a movement in both countries for the creation of larger areas of administration as the only effective method of equalising educational opportunities and of improving the quality of education. In England the result of this movement has been to reduce the number of local education authorities from 315 to 146. Through the combination of school areas, consolidation of schools, and the provision of transportation the number of local boards of education is rapidly being diminished in the United States.

The consolidation of areas of administration, however, within the States is only partially successful in achieving the main end—to provide every child with a good school and with competent well-prepared and well-paid teachers. The unequal distribution of wealth between the different States seriously handicaps progress; the poorer States have the larger number of children to be educated and, although the State governments are beginning to assume a greater share of the cost of education, many are still unable to raise adequate funds to maintain satisfactory minimum standards in such matters as school buildings, length of school year, provision of textbooks and other school equipment, and qualifications and salaries of teachers. The fundamental problem in both England and the United States is how increased funds for education can be provided from the national source without interfering with the right of local authorities to adapt education to local or regional needs and at the same time to maintain satisfactory standards of education.

The pattern of administration is in many respects similar in both countries. Boards of education or education committees represent the interests of the public. The boards of education or school committees in the United States are generally elected *ad hoc*. The professional administration is in the hands of a superintendent of schools in the one country and a director or chief education officer in the other, with the important difference that administrative officers in the United States are generally teachers of experience who have had professional preparation either for administration or supervision of schools. In both countries the strength of a local system of education is determined by the ability of its administrators. In the past and to some extent at present the administration of education has been too bureaucratic in the United States. An important change is taking place, however, in a tendency to give teachers a greater measure of participation in those matters in which they are competent to make a contribution as, for example, in the making and revision of courses of study, in methods of instruction, and in the selection of textbooks. It is still true, nevertheless, that there are greater differences between individual schools of a local area in England than of a local system in the United States.

VI

There is a striking difference in the attitude of the public in the two countries towards their schools. The American public on the whole takes a far greater interest in its schools than does the English. In large measure this dif-

ference is due to the fact that the most important part of the work of an American superintendent of schools is to arouse and to maintain public interest. Every method that can be used to bring the work of the schools to the attention of the public is employed—through pamphlets, posters, reports, and the press. The larger metropolitan newspapers have their own educational staff writers. The character and form of annual reports have been changed; they are attractively illustrated and written simply to arouse public interest and enlist support; they correspond to the handbooks published in England in connection with Education Weeks, or to the more recent publications of the Ministry of Education or the pamphlet *Replanning London Schools*.

Publications and reports are supplemented by a vast array of organisations, either general like the service clubs (Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions, Chambers of Commerce, Women's Clubs and Labor Unions), which devote some of their activities to the support of public education, or specially formed for the purpose like parent-teachers associations, public education associations, and citizens committees. Of these organisations many are state- and nation-wide. In general they are devoted to disseminating the idea that "Education Brings Dividends" both materially and spiritually. This note has been sounded only recently in England; the famous White Paper on Educational Reconstruction (1943) contained the following statement:

"In the youth of the nation we have our greatest national asset. Even on a basis of mere expediency we cannot af-

ford not to develop this asset to the greatest advantage." The enthusiastic interest in education which was aroused in this country in the years preceding the enactment of the Education Act, 1944, is a continuous feature in the United States.

The provision of equality of educational opportunity is the keynote of the recent educational reform in England; it has always been the ideal set before the American public since the founding of the Republic. In the United States this ideal was responsible for the gradual evolution of the single ladder or broad highway of education. The battle for free elementary education was won about the middle of the last century and for free secondary education in 1874; higher education in state colleges and universities has always been free except for incidental fees. Compulsory education begins at the age of six generally and continues to 15, 16, 17, and in some states to 18. In a few localities kindergartens have been established; the provision of nursery schools as a part of the public school system is only just beginning. Under the Education Act, 1944, the organisation of English education is moving in the same direction as the American.

In the reorganisation of secondary education, however, sufficient attention has not been paid to the American comprehensive high school, which does not offer a satisfactory solution to the problem of providing equality of educational opportunity. The chief weakness of the American comprehensive high school is that in seeking to meet the needs of all adolescent youth with a great range of

individual differences in ability, it does not carry out successfully either the academic or vocational programme. The high school is too slow for the fast and too fast for the slow. The standards attained by the graduate in academic studies are generally recognised to be about two years less than those of a Higher School Certificate. There is a tendency in the large urban centres to establish separate vocational high schools. More serious is the fact, revealed recently by the appointment of a special Commission, that neither the academic nor the vocational programme adequately meets the needs of about 3,000,000 boys and girls or slightly less than half of all now attending high schools. Before embarking on a multi-lateral school of the type of the American comprehensive high school, it would be well to investigate it more seriously.

The organisation of American education is free of some of the difficulties encountered in England. The United States does not have the problem of the dual system or of independent schools. Education has been secular since the middle of the 19th century, and, while there is a movement to provide religious instruction in schools, it is not likely to meet with success, if it is to be denominational. Private schools are few in number; some are modelled on English Public Schools; some are experimental; the majority are Roman Catholic parochial schools. They are attended by less than 10 per cent of the pupils and none receive public aid. Nor does the United States have the problems of separate schools for boys and girls; with few exceptions the public schools are coeduca-

tional, a practice which is rarely questioned.

VII

Neither the United States nor England has yet successfully solved the problem of recruiting an adequate supply of well-qualified teachers. The reason is the same in both countries—inadequate salaries and low esteem of the profession. Despite the recognition of the importance of education in a democracy, the important place of the teacher has not yet been recognised. In neither country has the changed character of education in its aims, content and methods of instruction been realised. This does not mean that excellent teachers cannot be found in large numbers in both countries. In the United States, however, the average salary of teachers, taking the country as a whole, was until recently less than that of a day labourer. To that can be added in many places uncertainty of tenure and in others bureaucratic administration. The opportunities in other occupations and professions combined with low salaries have attracted men away from teaching, except the small number who hope to rise to administrative positions. The American public has been ready to spend millions on buildings and equipment but not on salaries for teachers.

In both countries the preparation of teachers is still inadequate for the responsibilities of modern education. Standards are being raised in the United States and some states require three or four years of education beyond the high school. In this England still lags behind; the logic of the recognition of the equal importance of teaching at all levels

and the introduction of a unified salary scale has not yet been followed. The needs of modern education will not be met until the preparation of teachers in both countries is raised to the level of that required for other professions. But, as was stated in the McNair Report, teachers are not a race apart; some may be animated to enter the profession by missionary zeal; the majority choose the profession as a career and should have the expectation that the rewards will be commensurate both with the preparation required and the social importance of their work.

In one respect education in the United States differs radically from education in England; the difference is due to the absence of tradition in part, in part to a certain experimental attitude, which has been exalted to a philosophy, and in part to the size of the country which, because of a variety of factors, encourages greater flexibility and adaptations to local circumstances. The result is that to a far greater degree than England, the United States is a great experimental laboratory in education. Because the public takes a direct interest in education, it also tends to make its demands felt. Hence there is a greater readiness to adapt education to changing conditions.

Further, more opportunities are provided in the United States for the advanced study of education in all its aspects. In a country where public imagination has been captivated by the conquests of science and by the applications of scientific method, it is not surprising that there has been an extensive development of research in education—into its history, its social foundations, its

philosophy and, more particularly, its scientifically valid bases. In a country, again, in which there is a great deal of social mobility and in which confidence in the validity and reliability of marking in the traditional forms of examinations has disappeared, there has been a widespread development and use of objective tests and measurements. The organisation of research in education in the United States preceded a similar development in England by nearly thirty years. There is some danger, however, that in England as in the United States the employment of scientific, particularly statistical, methods in the study of education may be adopted at the expense of more profound thinking about the aims and purposes of education.

VIII

It would be interesting, and some day it may be possible, to compare standards of attainment in the educational systems of the two countries objectively. Both have much in common; where England stresses the importance of character training as the end of education, the United States emphasizes training of personality. Both countries, each in its own way, seek to promote the fullest development of the individual. The English tradition has devoted the major attention in education to the training of an élite; in the United States more attention has been given to those of average ability. In both countries it has been realised that the true aim of a democracy should be to adapt education to the ability and aptitude of each individual and to provide for each that education by which he is best capable of profiting.

On the qualitative differences between the educational systems of the two countries it is difficult to make any categorical statements. English education tends to be more academic, the American more practical. The shift in emphasis from the subject to the child, the chief contribution of the Handbook of Suggestions issued by the Board of Education in 1937, has dominated American education for a

generation or more. The English pupil may know more than the American pupil after the same number of years of education; the American claim, however, is that the American pupil can do more with what he has learned. Because each of the two countries has something to learn from the other, it is becoming increasingly important that they should understand more about each other.

AND FORBID THEM NOT

HAZEL SNELL SCHRIEBER

*Yesterday—I saw
A slice of bread
Lying in the street
Crushed by the weight
Of iron wheels
And the press
Of human feet.*

*Precious bread—
The essence of
Great farmlands
Not scarred by
War's unreason
But blest in the promises
Of every changing season.*

*Spring—when tiny seeds
Wake in darkened furrow,
Summer—bringing gold
To each ripened head,
Autumn—with great mounds
Of chaffless flour,
Winter—and fragrance
Of warm loaves of bread.*

*Today—
I saw a picture
Of children, pale and underfed,
Their thin arms reaching
For a crust of bread.*

Published in the San Francisco Examiner May 24, 1948, in connection with the United Nations Appeal for Children.

Education of Spanish Youth

MARJORIE A. CARLSON AND ROBERT HOLMES BECK

ON APRIL 1, 1939 General Francisco Franco Bahamonde was finally victorious over the armies of the government of Spain. Three years of civil war were ended in triumph for the Falange, the "Falange Española Tradicionalista y de los J. O. N. S."¹ which had been founded by Franco's precursors, Ramiro Ledesma, Onesimo Redondo, and Jose Antonio Primo de Rivera. Within a short time the Franco rule of Spain will have entered its second decade. It has outlived its models, National Socialism and Italian Fascism. In its ten years of existence there has been opportunity to educate an entire generation of secondary school students, who will have provided membership and leadership in one of the four groups comprising the Franco Youth Front.² The Youth Front trains the young men and women whose duty will be to perpetuate the Revolution. Successors to the present incumbents of office are ready.

In order to appreciate the thinking that may be expected from the next generation of Spain, this brief study of secondary education in Spain has been undertaken. Because the teaching of history and religion is especially stressed in Spain's secondary schools, history and religion shall serve to illustrate the edu-

cational philosophy that emerges in Spain.

I

A Spanish child begins school at the age of five, at which age the Law of Primary Instruction (1945) requires him to attend a school of primary education. Until the age of fourteen he continues in this school unless, at ten, he chooses to matriculate in a high school. Although secondary education is the topic to be addressed, it is important to sense something of the preparation given the secondary school student. The first article of the 1945 Law of Primary Education reveals the government's intention for the training of primary school students. The primary school is:

- (a) To make available to all Spaniards a general, obligatory culture.
- (b) To systematically shape the will, conscience, and character of the child in fulfillment of his duty and eternal destiny.
- (c) To instill in the child's spirit the love of and ideal of service to the country in accordance with the inspired principles of the "movement."
- (d) To prepare the child for further studies and activities of a cultural nature.
- (e) To contribute in its own sphere to the professional formation and orientation in a life of an agricultural, industrial, and commercial world.³

To further the ends of the law the family, the Catholic Church and the

¹ Traditional Spanish Phalanx of the Council of National Syndicatist Offensive.

² Most secondary students are enrolled in the Sección de Centros de Enseñanza o Escolares.

³ Article I, Law of Primary Education (1945).

state are endowed with certain inherent rights. The Law remarks that it is the family's "inalienable right and inexorable duty to educate its children and therefore to choose the persons or centers where they may receive primary education, subordinating itself to the law of the state, which is executing the common good."⁴ The Church has the right to establish primary schools together with the privilege of granting degrees. The Church also has the right "... to watch and inspect all teaching in public and private schools of primary level, with regard to the relation the teaching may have to faith and customs."⁵ The state has "the right to promote and protect primary education in the national territory, to create and sustain the schools (apart from private and religious institutions) that are necessary for the education of all Spaniards, and to grant the teachers professional titles. The inspection of public and private schools is to be exercised by the state according to its own methods."⁶

The Law of Primary Education explicitly remarks what subject matter shall be taught in the primary, elementary schools. Article V provides for religious education in the Catholic faith, education which is to be adjusted to the "dogmatic principles, the Catholic, and to the conditions of the canonical law in force." Article VI asserts that "it is the duty of primary education, by means of rigorous discipline according to the standards of the 'movement,' to develop a strong and united national spirit and

to instill in the souls of future generations happiness and pride in the country." Articles VIII and IX discuss social and intellectual education and say, in part, "... it is obligatory that primary education encourage the acquisition of the necessary social knowledge for group living. Likewise, according to accepted practices, it must guide the students in matters of economy, foresightedness, and mutual appreciation." Primary education must, "... in addition to shaping the will and spirit, promote the development of the intelligence, memory, and sensitiveness of the scholars by means of instrumental, formative, and perfecting knowledge." Article X discusses the importance of physical education, declaring that "... it not only encourages hygienic practices, but also makes youth strong, healthy, and well disciplined," and goes hand in hand with the intellectual and moral development of the student. At all levels of education in Spain mastery of Spanish is emphasized as essential.

II

After five years of attendance at the primary school the student may transfer to a secondary school. This school is a portion of the educational ladder called *enseñanza media* and is attended by youth aged ten to seventeen. The Technical Secretary of Education estimates that there are one hundred and twenty state secondary schools (*institutos*) and some fifteen hundred private secondary schools. In all schools the curriculum is carefully prescribed; there are no "electives." Successful completion of the course of study wins the Degree

⁴ Law of Primary Education (1945) Article II.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Article III.

⁶ *Ibid.*, Article IV.

⁷ Mr. José Navarro.

of the Classics, which is prerequisite for entrance to one of Spain's sixteen universities.⁸

All secondary schools are subject to the Law of Secondary Education promulgated by Franco in September 1938.⁹ The law primarily concerns itself with prescription of entrance requirements, subjects of instruction, textbooks, grading and promotion, fees, discipline, policies of inspection, and administration. The preliminary article of the law stresses six principles regulating secondary school studies:

- (a) A teaching technique to form personality with a firm foundation (religious, patriotic, humanistic).
- (b) Use of a cyclical teaching system to provide continuity in the studies.
- (c) As a logical consequence of (b), abolishing mid-term and (daily) assignment tests to (the end of) preventing memorization.
- (d) Separation of teaching and examining duties.
- (e) Necessity of the (State's) responsibility for the teaching staff of public as well as private schools.

⁸ The administrative structure of Spanish education follows a continental pattern and is familiar to any student of French educational organization.

⁹ Franco controlled the government by September 1938 and began to publish laws even though the loyalist forces were still in the field.

¹⁰ "The New Law of Secondary Education, Assembled by Don Higinio Leon Oces (Chief of the Section of Institutos of the Ministry of National Education) and Don Rafael Perez Lopez and Don Miguel Iboney Requena (Technical Administrators of the before-mentioned Ministerial Departments). Published by Garcia Enciso, 1939, Year of Victory, p. 29."

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 40.

¹² R. Saez Soler, *Planes de Estudios en Espana*. Edited by The Junta de Relaciones Culturales del Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores.

¹³ The number which follows courses indicates the class hours devoted to the subject each week.

- (f) Intervention of the state to make unification possible. Control of subject matter by means of "general inspection."¹⁰

As in France, educational administration is centralized. Spanish educational controls radiate from Madrid. The Ministry of Education approves all teachers and students. No books may be used in any state or private school without the approval of a special commission of the ministry. New schools are approved by this bureau and old schools disapproved if the ideals of the "national movement" are not being propagated by them. All directives emanate from the Chief of State, Franco. They are passed along through the Minister of Education who directs their administration with the assistance of subordinate directors.

The Spanish government looks upon studies as "disciplines of fundamental character."¹¹ During World War II a change in the secondary school program was made. The teaching of English was suspended and German was made a requirement. Except for that change the program of studies has been as follows.¹²

First Year

Religion (2) ¹³
Latin (3)
Spanish language (3)
History and geography of Spain (3)
Arithmetic and geometry (3)
Italian or French (3)
Elements of natural science (3)
Artistic, physical, and patriotic education (9)
Gymnasium
Music
Manual training
Art

Conferences on patriotic formation of youth	Artistic, physical, and patriotic education (9)
Drawing	Gymnasium
	Music
	Manual training
	Art
	Conferences on patriotic formation of youth
	Drawing
	<i>Second Year</i>
Religion (2)	
Latin (3)	
Spanish (3)	
Geography and history of Spain (3)	
Arithmetic (3)	
Italian or French (3)	
Elements of natural science (2)	
Artistic, physical, and patriotic education (9)	
Gymnasium	
Music	
Manual training	
Art	
Conferences on patriotic formation of youth	
Drawing	
	<i>Third Year</i>
Religion (2)	
Latin (3)	
Spanish (3)	
Universal geography and history (3)	
Arithmetic, geometry, and algebra (3)	
Italian or French (3)	
Elements of natural science (2)	
Artistic, physical, and patriotic education (9)	
Gymnasium	
Music	
Manual training	
Art	
Conferences on patriotic formation of youth	
Drawing	
	<i>Fourth Year</i>
Religion (2)	
Latin (3)	
Greek (3)	
Spanish literature and composition (3)	
Algebra and geometry (3)	
English or German (3)	
Review of Neo-Latin (1)	
Elements of physical chemistry (2)	
	<i>Fifth Year</i>
Religion (2)	
Introduction to philosophy (3)	
Latin grammar and literature (3)	
Greek grammar and literature (3)	
Spanish grammar and composition (2)	
History and geography of Spain (2)	
Algebra and elements of trigonometry (3)	
English or German (3)	
Review of Neo-Latin (1)	
Elements of physical chemistry (2)	
Artistic, physical, and patriotic education (9)	
Gymnasium	
Music	
Manual training	
Art	
Conferences on patriotic formation of youth	
Drawing	
	<i>Sixth Year</i>
Religion (2)	
Theory of knowledge and metaphysics (3)	
Latin grammar and literature (3)	
Greek grammar and literature (3)	
Spanish literature and survey of foreign literature (2)	
History of the Spanish empire (2)	
Algebra and survey of analytical geometry (3)	
English or German (3)	
Review of Neo-Latin (3)	
Review of physical chemistry and natural sciences (2)	
Artistic, physical, and patriotic education (9)	
Gymnasium	
Music	

Manual training
Art
Conferences on patriotic formation of youth
Drawing

Seventh Year

Religion (2)
Principal philosophical systems (3)
Latin grammar and literature (3)
Greek grammar and literature (3)
Spanish literature and survey of foreign literature (3)
Spanish empire and value of "Hispanidad" (2)¹⁴
Advanced algebra (2)
English or German (3)
Review of Neo-Latin (1)
Review of the elements of physical chemistry and natural sciences (2)
Artistic, physical, and patriotic education (9)
Gymnasium
Music
Manual training
Art
Conference on patriotic formation of youth
Drawing

III

Roman Catholicism is the only accepted faith in Spain today. No other religion may be practiced in public. From the time a child enters the primary school until, as an adult, he finishes his university course he is required to study the religion of the state. Moreover, religion touches on all subjects for the Church has been granted the privilege of censoring all books used in public or private schools. And all teachers

must be approved by the Church. Each teacher is trained to couple religious teaching with his or her field of specialization.

The extent of religion's applicability to subject matter is nowhere better illustrated than by that section of the *Nueva Ripalda*,¹⁵ a catechism, devoted to the enumeration of "modern errors." The catechism as a whole is approved for the schools. Both the Church and the state have endorsed it.

Enumeration of the Modern Errors

The principal errors condemned by the Church

The first, Materialism
The second, Darwinism
The third, Atheism
The fourth, Pantheism
The fifth, Deism
The sixth, Rationalism
The seventh, Protestantism
The eighth, Socialism
The ninth, Communism
The tenth, Syndicalism
The eleventh, Liberalism
The twelfth, Modernism
The thirteenth, Masonry

Concerning Materialism and Darwinism

Q. What is MATERIALISM?

A. The system which denies the existence of God and the human soul, and admits only matter.

Q. Why do you admit the existence of the soul?

A. Because matter is not able to remember, understand, or will, and requires, therefore, a superior sense which is the soul.

Q. What does Darwinism teach?

A. That perfect animals proceed from the imperfect and in particular, man from ape.

Q. What do you say to me about Darwinism?

A. That it is a ridiculous and absurd system.

¹⁴ The term "Hispanidad" refers to the idea that all Spanish speaking people are to be included in one super-national culture.

¹⁵ *Nueva Ripalda*, 17th edition, edited by Jose Vilamala: Barcelona, Spain, 1946.

Q. Why?

A. Because it is absurd to establish a likeness between free and intelligent man and a stupid animal.

.....¹⁶

Concerning Pantheism and Rationalism

Q. What do the pantheists teach?

A. That God is not distinguished from the world.

Q. What do you say to me about pantheism?

A. That it is an impious and absurd error.

Q. Why?

A. Because it puts in God, who is infinitely perfect, all the imperfections of the world.

Q. What does rationalism teach?

A. That reason is sufficient to ascertain all truths.

Q. Is this theory of the rationalism a valid one?

A. By no means.

Q. Why?

A. Because in order to ascertain truth, we have to have faith in addition to reason.

Q. What is faith?

A. A supernatural virtue which induces us to believe the truths revealed by the authority of God who reveals them.

Q. Is it possible to have a contradiction between reason and faith?

A. No, since they both come from God, there is no possibility of contradiction.

Q. What is the reason for some of the manifested contradictions between reason and faith?

A. Our own limitations of understanding which at times does not perceive clearly what reason prescribes or what faith prescribes.

Concerning Protestantism and Socialism

Q. What does Protestantism deny?

A. It denies the authority and infallibil-

ity of the Church and accepts only the Scripture, interpreted at its own fancy.

Q. Who was the founder of this heresy?

A. A traitorous friar—haughty and corrupt—called Luther.

Q. How can you prove the authority and infallibility of the Church?

A. Because they are necessary and Jesus Christ bestowed them.

Q. When did Jesus Christ grant the Church this infallibility and supreme authority?

A. When he ordered the Apostles to preach and baptize all persons, promising them his assistance for it and bestowing upon them his own authority.

Q. What does socialism teach?

A. That the state can dispose of private goods which are sources of wealth, and distribute them among the workers as it judges convenient.

Q. What do you say to me about socialism?

A. That it is an absurd system and, above all, unjust.

Q. Why?

A. Because it violates private ownership, which is sacred, and unjustly disposes of that which is not its own.

Concerning Communism and Syndicalism

Q. What does communism teach?

A. That there is no right of ownership and all material goods are for the masses.

Q. In what way is communism absurd?

A. In denying the right of ownership using, moreover, cruel means to succeed in its aim.

Q. What is syndicalism?

A. It is the union of the working class intent upon destroying society, and apportioning private property, and defending its presumed rights. (Of course the syndicalism we refer to is that which the anarchists and the followers of the so-called "anarchistic-communism" believe in.)

Q. Why is syndicalism brutal and pernicious?

A. Because it does not respect the right

¹⁶ The sections on Atheism have been omitted for the sake of brevity.

and the just, and plans to ruin society and apportion all riches of the universe by means of revolution.

Concerning Modernism and Masonry

Q. What does Modernism defend?

A. Outwardly, it defends faith, but in reality, accepts all the modern errors.

Q. What is Masonry?

A. A perverse organization which, with seemingly humanitarian ends, schemes to ruin society and the Church.

Q. What methods does it use to accomplish these very perverse objectives?

A. Crime, hypocrisy, and mystery.

Q. What sin is committed by those connected with Masonry?

A. A very grave sin, bringing about excommunication from the Church.

Q. What is the basis of all these errors?

A. Presumption of understanding and corruption of the heart.

Q. What are the principal arguments of our Sacred Religion?

A. The Prophets and miracles.

Q. What others?

A. The sublimity of its doctrine, its rapid propagation, its admirable conservation, testimony of martyrs, and above all, the sanctity of the life and death of its Divine Founder.

Concerning the Secular State

Q. Should the State be secular?

A. By no means; on the contrary, it ought to profess the only true religion which is the Catholic Religion.

Concerning Liberalism, Dogmatically Considered

Q. What does liberalism teach?

A. That the State is independent of the Church.

Q. What steps in liberalism can be distinguished?

A. Three principal ones.

Q. What does the first step teach?

A. That the Church ought to be subordinate to the State.

Q. What do the liberals deduce from this doctrine?

A. That they are not obliged to comply with laws of the Church (or evangelical advice) when they are in opposition to those of the State.

Q. What does the second step teach?

A. That the powers of the Church and State are equal and independent.

Q. What does this imply?

A. That all civil laws are obligatory and just, even though they oppose the Commandments of the Church.

Q. What does the third step teach?

A. That the Church is superior to the State, but at the present time ought to permit its independence with all the other liberties that liberalism teaches.

Q. Has the Church condemned all these errors?

A. Yes, Father; principally in the encyclical "Quanta Cura" and in the "Syllabus."

Q. At this point what does the Catholic doctrine teach?

A. That the State ought to subject itself to the Church, like the body to the soul and the present to eternity.

Q. How do we establish the superiority of the Church to the State?

A. In its very noble aim which is eternal salvation of man—very superior to the temporal aims characteristic of the State.

Q. In some cases is the State independent of the Church?

A. Yes, when concerned with temporal affairs not related to spiritual and ethical matters.

Q. Is it true that the Church ought not to "meddle" in politics?

A. Very true—politics always staying within its just limits, not meddling in religion.

Q. What is Jesus Christ's doctrine in these cases?

A. Render unto Caesar that which is Caesar's and to God that which is God's.

*Concerning Other False Freedoms
of Liberalism*

Q. What other freedoms does liberalism defend?

A. Freedom of conscience, freedom of worship, and freedom of the press.

Q. What does "freedom of conscience" mean?

A. That one can practice the religion dictated by his conscience, and no religion if he is not prompted to do so.

Q. Is it true that man can choose the religion which pleases him most?

A. No, since he should only practice the Catholic, the apostolic, the Roman, which is the only true religion.

Q. What does "freedom of worship" mean?

A. That the government ought to favor free exercise of all religions however false they may be.

Q. What is, then, the Government's obligation at this point?

A. To entertain it first and afterwards assist the only true religion which is the Catholic religion.

Q. But should it not assist and protect all the opinions of its subjects?

A. Yes, Father, always, if these opinions are not condemned by the Church.

Q. "Freedom of press"—what is it?

A. The authority to print and publish without previous censorship all opinions no matter how absurd and corrupt they may be.

Q. Should not the Government repress this freedom by means of previous censorship?

A. Obviously, yes.

Q. Why?

A. Because it must prevent deceit, slander, and corruption of its subjects who act directly against the common good.

Q. Are there any other pernicious freedoms?

A. Yes, Father, freedom of education, freedom of propaganda, and freedom of assembly.

Q. Why are these freedoms injurious?

A. Because they serve to teach false beliefs, to propagate vice, and to scheme against the Church.

Q. Does the Church tolerate these freedoms?

A. No, Father, repeatedly it has condemned them.

Q. Is the Church opposed to progress?

A. The Church is opposed to progress of error; but it has always encouraged progress of the truth, which is true progress.

Q. Does the Church place obstacles to freedom?

A. The Church places obstacles to the freedom of vice; but it encourages freedom of the good and virtuous.

Concerning Liberalism, Morally Considered

Q. What sin is liberalism?

A. A very serious sin against faith.

Q. Why?

A. Because it is a combination of heresies and errors condemned by the Church.

Q. Is it lawful for a Catholic to call himself liberal?

A. No, Father.

Q. Why?

A. Because it is scandalous to take the name of an error condemned by the Church.

Q. Can Catholics completely or partially believe in liberalism and call themselves "Liberal Catholics"?

A. No, Father, because Catholics cannot completely or partially approve of that which the Church has condemned.

Q. Can a Catholic ignore his religion like the common man, only practicing it in private?

A. On the contrary, his works as a common man because of his important transcendency, merit a great punishment or a great reward.

The Secular School and the Only School

Q. What do we mean when we say the secular school?

A. Centers of education where God and

Religion are ignored and only scientific and worldly knowledge is treated.

Q. Why are the above-mentioned schools harmful?

A. Because in education they ignore religious obligations, treat scientific information inadequately, and moral education without an established foundation.

Q. What is the principal reason?

A. The principal reason is because the secular school is anti-religious in practice.

Q. What is meant by the "only school"?

A. A single organization of teaching centers directed by the state, free, coeducational, and above all secular and obligatory for all citizens.

Q. What do you think of the only school?

A. That a portion of it is good, much of it bad, and some of it ridiculous and absurd.

Q. How may this be seen?

A. That it be obligatory and free is good; but that it be secular and moreover co-educational is prohibited by the Religion and the Christian Ethics.

Q. What portion is ridiculous and absurd?

A. Offering all families free schools paid for them without considering economic means.

Concerning the Reading of Liberal Papers

Q. Does a person who subscribes to a liberal journal commit a serious sin?

A. Yes, Father.

Q. Why?

A. Because he contributed his money to evil, places his faith in danger, and is a bad example to others.

Q. Would it be a small sin to read a liberal newspaper just once?

A. Yes, Father, indeed, it is seldom that the news or articles read are slightly dangerous.

Q. Are there certain logical causes which require reading a liberal journal?

A. Rare, but possible.

Q. What should one do in this case to avoid erring?

A. Question a wise and prudent director.

Note: May you be warned that even though there is reason for reading part of a newspaper . . . , this does not mean that it is right to read the remainder of it.

Q. By what means can one identify liberal journals?

A. The following:

1. If they call themselves liberal.
2. If they defend freedom of conscience, freedom of worship, freedom of the press, or any of the other liberal errors.
3. If they attack the Roman Pontiff, the clergy, or the Religious Orders.
4. If they belong to liberal parties.
5. If they comment on news or judge personalities with a liberal criterion.
6. If they unreservedly praise the good moral and intellectual qualities of liberal personalities or parties.
7. If, in reporting the events concerned with the battle waged by Our Lord Jesus Christ and His Holy Church against their enemies today, they remain neutral.

Note: One certain way to ascertain whether a journal is or is not liberal is to see if it was published with "ecclesiastic censorship." Censorship should be stamped in a preferred place in perfectly clear letters to avoid any kind of misunderstanding.

Q. In these cases what is the best rule to follow to avoid a mistake?

A. Not to read any journal without previous consultation with a father-confessor and approval by him.

Q. What should a good Catholic do in relation to the press?

A. Eradicate the impious and liberal and subscribe to and propagate the Catholic.

Concerning Civil Matrimony and Divorce

Q. What is civil marriage?

A. Marriage said before civil authority without intervention by the Church.

Q. Is civil marriage true marriage?

A. No, stupid concubinage.

Q. Why?

A. Because true marriage ought to be celebrated before ecclesiastical authority fulfilling, moreover, all that is ordained by Jesus Christ and our Holy Mother, the Church.

Q. What is divorce?

A. Separation of spouses with power to remarry.

Q. Does the Law of God sanction perfect divorce?

A. By no means.

Q. Why?

A. Because it hinders rational union of the spouse, education of the children, peace and domestic harmony, and morality—all of which should be reflected in the family.

Q. Are Catholics obligated to support the religion of the Church and the maintenance of the clergy with their money?

A. Obviously, yes.

Q. Why?

A. Because the expenditures of the Ecclesiastic Society should be taken care of by the members who are the Catholics, and God has commanded this in the Old and New Testament.

Q. Should the States maintain the Church and clergy?

A. Yes, Father.

Q. Why?

A. Because the Catholic Religion contributes to material, scientific, and moral progress of man, and the States ought to give thanks to God by encouraging and maintaining his religion.

Q. What is the merit of this good work?

A. It contributes to God's work and defends the faith against error, and is a good example to all.

Concerning the Religious Orders

Q. Should the Religious Orders be expelled or dissolved?

A. No, Father.

Q. Why?

²² Questionarios para Los Estudios del Bachillerato, Barcelona, Spain, 1939, Section IV, pp. 3-6 (questionnaire on the studies covered by the secondary school degree).

A. Because the religious members are citizens who live consecrated to Our Holy Father fulfilling their rightful duties, making a great contribution to humanity, and spreading progress and civilization throughout the world.

IV

Each year of the secondary school's seven year program has a course in history as part of its curricular sequence. In his first year the Spanish youth concentrates on the following general topics:²²

Primitive Spain and its concept....

The great heroes and kings of Castile, Navarre, and Aragon....

The glorious reign of the Catholic kings with the formation of a united Spain.... Justification for the expulsion of the Jews....

Spain realizes the greatest event of its history in the discovery of the New World.

Greatness of the Spanish Empire during the reigns of Charles I of Spain and Charles V of Germany....

Magnificent reign of Phillip II.... lamentable defeat of the Spanish Armada....

Spain battles an unfriendly Europe in the 17th century to defend the empire....

The war of Succession—England, Spain's enemy on the sea, takes the spoils such as Gibraltar....

The House of Bourbon. Miserable effect of French influence and the infiltration of Masonry in spite of the Catholicism of the kings....

The War of Independence with its religious, monarchic, and Spanish significance.

The civil wars of the 19th century—the significance of the repulsion of liberalism.

The Revolution of '68 and the disastrous effects of the first republic.

Miguel Primo de Rivera—patriotism, order, authority, and conquest of North Africa.

The second republic. Its anti-national and anti-catholic policy. . . . The separatist dividers of the country and the invasion of marxism and bolshevism. . . .

The "National Movement." Its origin, men, and historic justification. Its patriotic, moral, and religious significance.

Second Year¹⁸

... Prehistoric Spain. . . .

The first inhabitants and the colonizers. . . .

The Roman conquest of Spain and the heroic spirit of the Spaniards. . . .

The preaching of Christianity in Spain . . . and the apostolic men. . . .

Germanic invasion. A Spanish Visigothic monarchy. . . .

Arabic conquest of Spain. Weakness of the Visigoths.

The Christian reconquest. . . .

First union of León and Castile. . . .

The Cid as the historic and literary prototype of the heroic, Christian Spaniard.

Great kings of the reconquest. . . .

The reigns of Navarre and Aragon. . . .

The great reign of Ferdinand . . . and the Union of Castile and León. . . .

The problem of the Straits of Gibraltar. . . .

The Catholic kings. Unity of Spain . . . expulsion of Jews, the conquest of Naples.

Events preceding the discovery of America. Columbus and his great voyages under protection of the great Queen Isabel. . . .

Charles I . . . and the European wars. Charles V . . . Domination and powers of Spain in Europe during this period. Conquests of Mexico and Peru.

Philip II, the great Spanish king. . . . The Invincible Armada. . . .

Philip III . . . cultural and artistic height of Spain and its international influence.

Charles II . . . ambitions of Europe in and over Spain. . . .

The House of Bourbon. . . . War of Succession. . . .

Charles III. War against England. Unfortunate French Encyclopedic and Masonic influences in the directing minorities.

Charles IV and the French Revolution. . . . Napoleon's treacherous misconceptions. . . .

The glorious Spanish War of Independence. . . . Spanish thought during the war is anti-foreign, traditional, Catholic, and monarchical.

Ferdinand VII. Liberals and absolutists and anti-Spanish policy of England and France. . . .

Isabel II. . . .

The first republic—disorder, riots, insurrection, and thefts. . . . Its weakness and error in the liberal democratic sense. . . .

The brutal and unjust North American aggression. Heroic defense of Cuba and the Philippines. . . . War in Africa and the historical and geographical importance of North Morocco. . . .

The reign of General Primo de Rivera—return of government to rightful authorities, order, anti-parliamentarianism. The pseudo-intellectuals, masonry, and the international Jewish financiers cause the collapse of the Monarchy.

The second republic with its disasters, its disorder, and its crimes. Its anti-national and anti-catholic ideal.

The "National Movement." Franco. Spain once again becomes historic.

Third Year¹⁹

Concept of the history of Spain. . . .

Divisions of history:

Pre-historic, historic plan of Egypt. . . .

Babylonian empire, the Hebrew nations, history of Greece, and Greek expansion. . . .

History of Rome. . . .

Christianity; its preaching and dissemina-

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-11.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-15.

nation, persecutions. The organization of the Catholic Church. The splendor of the Christian culture in the East and the West.

Germanic invasions.

End of the Roman Empire in the West.

Important Germanic monarchies.

The Empire of the East. . . .

The Arabic expansion. . . .

The Crusades. . . .

The great feudal monarchies.

The Ten Years War.

The schism of the West.

The Turkish nation. . . .

The great geographical discoveries.

The Renaissance.

The formation of great nationalities.

Moral purity of the Spanish nationality, faithful servant of the catholic spirit of medieval Christianity. Political supremacy of Spain.

The Protestant Reformation. Its moral and puritanic pretense. Its revolutionary foundation and solvent rationalism.

The Counter-Reformation. The Society of Jesus. . . .

Religious Wars. . . .

English revolution. Its character—hypocritical, puritanic, and tyrannically anticatholic.

Political superiority of France. Louis XIV. The principal European states during the 18th century. England, France, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden. Dutch and English colonization. Their commercial and materialistic view—exploitation of the lower classes. Independence of the United States.

French Revolution. Its causes—encyclopedic, Masonic, and anti-Catholic.

The Directorate, the Consulate, and the Empire. Napolean Bonaparte.

Independence of Spanish America and Brazil. . . . Weakening of the Mother country. Masonic and encyclopedic influences. England is anti-Spain.

The Congress of Vienna and the Holy Alliance.

General peace in Europe after the Holy Alliance.

Progress of the Revolution.

The Orient question.

Napolean III. Victoria I of England; the English Empire. Its character of exploiting inferior classes. Disgraces in India. Financial, materialistic thought. Actual instability of the British Empire.

The Unification of Italy.

Franco-Prussian War. . . .

The United States of North America. The inferior and materialistic sense of the North American Civilization. Lack of principles and moral unity. . . . Its unjust aggression against Spain and the Spanish American countries. . . . Moral superiority of Hispano-America over North America. The European War. Its remote causes. The materialization of Europe as a consequence of rationalism and the Reformation. . . .

Need for a fundamental reform of European civilization which is today in a blind alley. Spain and her exemplary mission.

Fourth Year

In the fourth, as in the previous three courses, the outline of European civilization and its history are presented. During the fourth year the student is expected to "complete his knowledge of universal political history with the study of culture, of civilization of nations, and of happenings which politically influence the development of humanity in the spiritual, ideological, and cultural aspects."²⁰ Special emphasis is placed on the culture of the 20th century and the consequences of World War I. Democracy is ridiculed. Communism is described as lowering mankind to a machinelike existence. Fascism is discussed in its national, spiritual, and historic sense and praised as "the dignifier of the human being."²¹

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

Fifth Year

This year's work is intended to acquaint the student with the internal and cultural life of Spain in order that he or she may understand Spain's great contributions and present influence. The dramatic, historical facts are again presented as background for understanding the material studied at the close of the year. The course ends with emphasis upon:

. . . The unjust and aggressive North American war against Spain. The heroism of the Spaniards in legitimate defense of her colonies and patriotic honor. . . .

Government of Dictator Primo de Rivera and his popularity. His desire to turn from parliamentarianism to that which is traditionally Spanish. Beginning of separative tendencies. Spain's international prestige. Security of national and local property. . . .

. . . Fall of the monarchy. The international Masonic-Jewish plot. The ambitious and spiteful pseudo-intellectuals.

Five years of the Republic. Anti-Catholic, anti-military, anti-Spanish ideals of the Republic. Burning of convents, persecution of religious teaching, and oppression of the army. Spain in hands of Masonry, international socialism and the Comintern. . . . Crimes of the Republic. . . .

The great uprising and representative leaders. Crimes, assassinations, thefts, and sacrilegious acts committed by the "Reds."

Franco, the savior of the nation. . . .²²

Sixth and Seventh Years

In the sixth and seventh years, in addition to the history of the Spanish Em-

pire, reference is made to the ". . . splendid expansion of Spain in the modern age."²³ The student is now ready to understand the value of the Hispanidad movement, which is Spain's plan to acquire political, economic, and cultural allegiance of all Spanish-speaking countries. A great part of the seventh year is devoted to explaining, justifying, and encouraging this movement. Its spiritual superiority is compared with the "insignificant actions" of other countries. The Franco government is pictured as the spearhead of this universal movement and as the "defender of true civilization which is Christianity."²⁴

V

The Spanish school teacher uses textbooks approved by the state. He or she is also provided with a handbook titled *Manual of Political Education*.²⁵ This book is intended to familiarize the teacher with the principles that the regime wishes to have propagated. The following description of Spanish history is translated from the supplement to this handbook.

Instructions to teachers

Lesson I—Spain's calling

The development of a country constitutes its history, and, thus, we must look to the events which have shaped life in our country. By knowing and understanding the past of our Nation, we will be able to act now and in the future. Providence bestows upon all individuals as well as nations certain aptitudes. Also, each nation has a special and private duty which we name its "calling." . . . Every person should perform something of worth during his life by working in happiness, overcoming difficulties, and employing all of his intelli-

²² *Ibid.*, p. 26-27.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 36.

²⁴ *Loc. cit.*

²⁵ J. R. Huerta, *Manual de Educación Política* (Manual of Political Education) Madrid, Spain, no date.

gence. This is his "calling." Each nation has its special "calling" which it fulfills in order to realize a prosperous and good life and to be respected by other countries when dealing with the destiny of the world. Accordingly, the individual and the nation place themselves in a position from which they are best able to carry out their duty. England, with her commercial duty; Italy, the artistic, and so forth. We have seen them become great and prosperous nations. Spain also has her calling which is the defense and propagation of spiritual values throughout the world—that is to bring to all parts its projected civilization and the Gospel. It is obvious that, in the history of Spain, when our nation began its great calling it was strong and powerful, and when it later turned to other missions it became weak and poor. The "calling" gives perseverance to the soul and the opportunity to sacrifice.

Lesson II—Process of Spain's integration

About 2000 years before Christ the Iberian Peninsula was inhabited by a vigorous race from Africa called Iberians . . . and also by other men called Celts. At this time Spain did not exist in any unity. The tribes were divided, living without a common mission and in complete separatism. Many years later the Phoenicians, Greeks, and Carthaginians arrived from the East, North, and South coasts of the Mediterranean. They founded various colonies and taught the inhabitants many useful things, so that Spain might become a great nation. Then, from a powerful and superior civilization came the soldiers of the Roman Empire to fight against the Carthaginians. It took them over three hundred years to conquer Spain, due to the Spanish guerrillas, who like Viriato, were a terror to the best Roman generals, and to the great cities like Numancia which was defended from the assaults of the enemy for fourteen years—the soldiers preferring to die before surrendering. The Romans brought their wise laws and the Latin language from which

Spanish is derived. When the Romans ruled our country, Spain acquired unity and it became a nation unified by language and law. Later when Christ was born in Palestine and his doctrines preached in our country by the Apostle, Santiago, and accepted with intense faith by the Spaniards, religious unity also became a reality during the reign of the Roman emperor, Constantine. With the collapse of the Roman Empire and the invasion of the "barbarians," territorial unity was severed in many zones until the Visigoths became absolute rulers of the nation. During the reign of their king, Leovigildo, Spain was unified but attained religious unity again only after his son, King Recaredo, declared Spain to be Catholic. . . . Spain had to suffer a third invasion in the eighth century by the Arabs, and it took the Spanish eight centuries to effect a reconquest. . . . The Arabs were continually forced South, and the different reigns were gradually liquidated. With the marriage of Ferdinand V of Aragon and Isabel I of Castile, the conquest of the last Moorish hold of Granada, and with the incorporation of the kingdoms of Navarra, Spain became entirely unified—spiritually and materially on the road to greatness.

Lesson III—Greatness of Spain

With Granada conquered by the Catholic Kings and Navarra incorporated, Spain realized territorial unity. With the rise of the nobility and military orders, she achieved unity of authority with the expulsion of the Jews and the Arabs, and the establishment of the Inquisition which guarded the faith of Christ and punished crimes against the faith—she achieved religious unity. Spain was "one" in her lands, in her law, in her spirit, and in her language. . . . Thus Spain, being superior to all other countries because of the knowledge acquired from the Phoenicians, Greeks, Romans, and Arabs, felt obliged to project her spiritual values to all parts of the world. . . .

Nine months after the conquest of

Granada, Christopher Columbus, with the protection of the Catholic kings, discovered the American continent and there the best warriors and evangelizers went to explore and conquer lands for Spain and for Christ. We brought our language, religion, race, laws, justice, customs, and civilization to America. . . .

In the 16th century Spain was an empire as great and powerful as the world has ever known. . . . Her scientific, artistic, and literary development was also extraordinary. Hence, the 18th century was aptly named the "Golden Age," with eminent leaders in sculpture, art, theology, poetry, prose, science, medicine, missionary work and other fields. Among many we can mention a few: Alonso Cano, el Greco, Velázquez, Murillo, Herrera, Francisco de Vitoria, Melchor Cano, San Juan de la Cruz, Santa Teresa de Jesús, Quevedo, Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Calderón de la Barca, Francisco Javier, Ignacio de Loyola, and many others.

The Spanish spirit extended throughout the world influencing all the countries where its culture and faith were introduced.

In the years of Carlos I and Felipe II Spain, "unified," still was very great. She had completed her mission and to it she owed her greatness.

Lesson IV—Decadence in Spain

. . . With the Bourbon dynasty came Philip V with ministers, generals, customs, and influences from France. Hence, Spain, influenced by France, lost her sense of destiny and was obliged to follow a course which was not her own. She lost her spirituality and personality and entered a period of . . . decadence. She entered into wars to defend ideals which were not her own but those of France, and thus wasted her economic resources, her army, her navy, and her influence, and prestige.

Revolutionary doctrines which denied the existence of God and the soul penetrated our country. Secret Masonic societies appeared, and we began losing our possessions in Italy, lower Countries, and Amer-

ica. During the 19th century our nation had two opportunities to rectify such conduct and claim our destiny. The first was the War of Independence against the Napoleonic invasion, when Spain . . . was able to conquer and repel the French. But we remained politically conquered by the latter's "liberalism," which continued to influence our country with its laicization, liberties, and anti-patriotism. Our second opportunity was realized during two civil struggles called the Carlist Wars. . . . The defenders of Spanish tradition rose against those who were responsible for the country losing its historic calling. But the defenders failed due to misunderstanding and treachery.

Later there were rebellions, insurrections, national and international wars, and brief reigns of other dynasties and of the Republic. The political parties created at this time . . . produced disunion and prevented progress. Marxism appeared, and at the end of the 19th century all the rest of that immense and rich empire that we had disappeared. Spain now found herself with her historical and traditional values destroyed and no longer the leader of the universe.

The 20th century brought many unhappy events to pass in Spain. Despotic and dictatorial communism appeared; there were military failures in Morocco, and separatism once again appeared. Only during the six years that the dictatorship lasted did we enjoy peace and happiness. But the latter disappeared as did the House of Bourbon . . . and with the Republic . . . our country reached the limit of its ruin. Spain was now neither *unified* nor *great*; we found ourselves in a situation opposed to our mission, and to this fact we owe our decadence.

Lesson V—Spain before its new rise

During the reign of Alfonso XII, the last king of the House of Bourbon, there were twenty-nine governments, transgressions against the king, assassinations of presi-

dents and of the Consejo of Ministers, military losses in Africa, and in the last period, strikes, riots, and acts of terror were the order of the day.

All this gave rise to . . . the establishment of a military dictatorship in 1923 by D. Miguel Primo de Rivera who, acting with the assent of the king and the wish of the people, declared himself president. After two years he replaced the military ministers with men of civil status. He dissolved all political parties, forming one which he named the Patriotic Union. His fellow leaders were men of outstanding calibre such as D. Jose Calvo Sotelo . . . and the Count of Guadalhorce in Public Works. During this period many advances were made.

Slander, underground political parties, Masonry, marxism, and separatism . . . brought an end to the dictatorship which had lasted a little more than six years, a time when Spain realized tranquility, order, and national and international prestige. The king remained in the hands of his enemies and Spain (the people), realizing her weakness, turned her back and allowed the triumph of the Republic in the elections of April 14, 1931. After only a month of existence, the Republic realized the futile pretext for its inauguration in a monarchical circle.

In Madrid, Seville, Valencia, Málaga, and other important cities, convents and temples were burned; religious persons were maltreated; works of art were destroyed; well-known dwellings were seized. The Cortes created a constitution which was markedly leftist, and with supplementary laws which appeared later, it caused the disappearance of the crucifix and the teaching of the Catechism in the schools; it dissolved the Society of Jesus; it separated the Church from the State, prohibiting outward acts of the Church; divorce became established; cemeteries were secularized; there was even a law allowing Catalonia to have a

government, parliament, and its own laws independent of those of the nation.

All of this led to the destruction of the faith of the child and dissolution of the Church, army, family, and a unified country. And with changes and strikes in the streets and in factories, personal safety was no longer assured.

The first days of October, 1934, an anarchist-communist-separatist revolution broke out in Asturias, Madrid, Catalonia, and other regions. It was stopped, but严厉ly punished. This was the condition of Spain before the great rising.

Our country had lost the little tradition that remained of its will of spiritual power and was instead in an extremely grave period of immorality, atheism, disunion, injustices, and anarchy.

Lesson VI—Arriba Spain!¹⁵

Spain now ruined and without a mission, could rise, save herself, and attain the greatness she once had only be renewed impulses of strength of all the citizens. For this reason, when we say "Arriba Spain," we wish it to be understood that we are undertaking the great task of rebuilding Spain by means of total unity, work, and justice in order that the country may occupy its rightfully high place in the world of nations. Therefore, it was necessary to establish a new order which was the intent of Ramiro Ledesma and Onésimo Redondo who founded the J.O.N.S. Later it became a reality when José Antonio Primo de Rivera created the Spanish Falange, grouped later with the Tradicionalismo, constituting an organization called "Falange Española Tradicionalista y de los J.O.N.S." Its emblem—yoke and arrows; its flag—red and black; its slogan—"one Spain great and free" and "for country bread and justice." The new movement became synthesized in "Arriba Spain." . . . Its principles were the work of the gifted and intelligent youth, José Antonio, and it came forth to return the Spanish nation toward its destiny and to social justice—for this

¹⁵ Spain, Arise!

reason calling itself "Nacional-Sindicalista."

The Falange rid the country of the materialistic course she was following, substituting the spiritualism which Spain had in the great epochs. It suppressed the . . . artificial political parties and the capitalistic and marxist economic systems, substituting national-synicalistic solutions founded on love and brotherhood of all Spaniards. The Falange comrades worked with ardor and enthusiasm to implant this new order. They founded the S.E.U., the newspapers "Fe," "Arriba" and "Haz," the Feminine Section, . . . Jose Antonio and his collaborators by a series of acts, succeeded in attracting persons of all social classes in small towns and cities to fight for the cause. In these trials they were constantly persecuted and many of the finest were assassinated.

With the triumph of the Popular Front in the elections of February of 1936, the Falange suffered a period of maximum persecution. Its founder was held and put in jail, and some months later the Republic stained its hands with innocent blood by assassinating two of the most illustrious sons of Spain, Jose Calvo Sotelo and Jose Antonio Primo de Rivera. By this action the sentence of death had been placed on the Falange and thus on July 18, 1936, the National Uprising broke out. It had to succeed in order that "Arriba Spain" might become a reality.

Lesson VII—The Youth Front—Its Constitution and Significance

Before the rising, the youth formed groups in the different political parties, and in April, 1937, by the Decree of Unification, Franco allied them all under an organization called the "Youth Organization."

The "Youth Organization" was a heroic institution at a time when Spain was gaining ground little by little. . . . It served valiantly in the rear-guard. But after the war it was

necessary to regulate its functions by means of by-laws giving it more power and determining with clarity the mission the new Spain was assigning her youth. For this reason on December 6, 1940, the Chief proclaimed the Law of the Frente de Juventudes.²⁷

The Frente de Juventudes is the most important section of the Spanish Movement because it includes all youth in order to carry out its services to the state. Its diverse aspects are patriotic, political, physical, pre-military, religious, moral, cultural, social in service to the country. The constitution states that the "Frente" of first class formed by the Spanish youth . . . should prepare to direct the destiny of Spain. For this reason the men of tomorrow are taken by the Frente de Juventudes at a tender age, taught, and modeled so that at a later age they will be fit to take part in the Movement, the savior of the country. . . . Also, it builds them up physically, so that we may have a healthy and vigorous race; it gives them a pre-military education so that they may be of assistance if called upon to lend their services to the country. There are four groups of the 'Frente'—thus encompassing all youth.

1. Sindicato Espanol Universitario (S. E. U.) (Spanish University Syndicate) by students of higher learning without limit as to age.
2. Seccion de Centros de Ensenanza o Escolares (Section of Student Centers), comprising youth in elementary and secondary education (official as well as private schools); from 7 years on up.
3. Seccion de Centros de Trabajo or Aprendices (working class section), comprising workers in city offices from 14-21 years.
4. Seccion de Rurales o Campesinos (Rural Section), comprising farm workers from 14-21 years of age.

The "Frente de Juventudes" also has a voluntary group which is called Falanges Juveniles de Franco,²⁸ integrated by the

²⁷ The Youth Front.

²⁸ Franco's Falange Youths.

select youth. It is the most select group and trained for the most important services to the country. There also exist the "Fleches de Aire"²⁰ and the "Flechas Navales"²¹ which enable the youth to become informed should they need to join either the Navy or Air Force.

Lesson XXI—The National Rising

... When the good Spaniards suddenly and frightfully realized that the faith and independence of the country were in great danger, they joined with the Army, the only power which could save the nation. The Army with the Falange and Tradicionalismo, performed the "National Rising."

Only a leader to conduct the Spaniards to victory was lacking, and among all emerged the Caudillo, savior of Spain. From all the outstanding military chiefs came General Francisco Franco Bahamonde, who was chosen chief because of his outstanding ability, talent, and love for Spain. If Jose Antonio was the intelligent political creator of the Movement and the herald of the Revolution, then Franco was the executive branch of it. To these two men Spain owes thanks for being freed from the great danger she was in.

In the battle brought on by the "Rising" there were two armies face to face in a civil war . . . the National Army—constructive and defender of Catholicism, order, and all Spanish ideals—whose soldiers went into combat carrying the two-toned national flag and singing the hymn, "Marcha Granadera"; the Red Army—foreignized, destructive, without order, enemy of God—whose militiamen waved the Red Soviet flag with the sickle and hammer and sang the "International."

The Revolution in Spain was one of love, pardon, unity—a struggle to defend the humble and middle classes so that they might enjoy a better life. That which was anti-Spain was one of hate, vengeance,

separatism—intending to make all into a proletariat and poor humanity with the object of forcing all Spaniards to live in want.

Although Marxist elements all over the world aided the "reds" with arms, money, and food, Franco never lost faith in victory, and little by little reconquered the national territory that was in the hands of the "Reds," fighting at times against both the "national" and the "international."

And so on the first of April, 1939, the victorious General Franco could say with great pride—in the last phase of the battle

The war is over!

VI

The nature of Spain's educational philosophy is self-evident. It is not the purpose of this essay to do more than remark upon its significance for those concerned with philosophies of education in a democracy. Spanish educational philosophy is rather strongly anti-democratic. Among the "modern errors" condemned in the catechism, *Nueva R韔lida*,²² are liberalism, freedom of conscience, freedom of speech and assembly, freedom of the press, freedom of thought, and the liberty of reading freely. Spaniards are immersed in a culture which prides itself upon aggression, the Inquisition, and the expulsion of religious heretics.

Authoritarianism depicts Spain's educational philosophy better than such possible rival descriptions as totalitarianism or absolutism. Democratic societies also employ authority and force, but they are presumed to exercise it through consensus rather than by "command decision." Theoretically, democracy espouses the sovereignty of the beneficiary of government. In a democracy the government exists for the benefit of all the people;

²⁰ Air Forces.

²¹ Naval Forces.

²² *Nuevas R韔lidas*, supra., pp. 9-18.

the people are sovereign. They delegate their authority but hold their elected representatives responsible for the wise execution of policy. Even the law is but an instrument of communal agreement in a democracy. Majorities and minorities are protected by the law. Free press, free radio, free mails, free elections, free newspapers, free magazines, uncensored books, trial by one's peers, equality before the law, and due process of law, open discussion and locally controlled, fee-free public education combine to permit the law to be enacted and enforced under the surveillance of the people. Of course, there are lobbies. Newspapers, radio networks and publishers are sensitive to their customers' wishes, but democracy approves no official censorship of ideas.

In contrast to any description of the democratic way of life Spain is an aristocracy, proud of its elite of blood and position. In the hierarchy of power this elite rules from the apex of the pyramid. Authoritarianism is the natural derivative of the culture. There is nothing historically new, little that is unique in Spanish authoritarianism. Franco did

not produce authoritarianism nor was it Franco's inheritance from the earlier dictatorship. Although the derivation of this tradition is not the concern of this essay, aspects of it were suggested by the questionnaire on the historical subjects covered by the secondary schools of Spain²² and by the *Manual of Political Education* given to the Spanish teachers.²³

In passing it may not be out of place to remark that authoritarianism has not lacked champions in the United States and among educators of note. Chancellor Robert M. Hutchins of Chicago University has been indicated as a "reactionary."²⁴ The charge was meant to suggest that the faith Chancellor Hutchins displayed in the ability of Reason to know absolute truths hinted of authoritarianism. This was not a happy choice of indictments. There is a gap between authoritarianism and reaction. There are radicals of the "left" who are authoritarian but who have not been dubbed reactionary by anyone. Chancellor Hutchins has crusaded for many liberal and progressive causes, academic freedom for one. Professor Mortimer Adler, who is often coupled with Chancellor Hutchins as a reactionary, has been an outspoken critic of racial intolerance or discrimination and other anti-social evils.²⁵ Jacques Maritain, the best known of the Catholic philosophers of education and one very friendly to Chancellor Hutchins' and Mortimer Adler's viewpoints in education, has written against anti-Semitism and a host of wrongs that are perpetrated against humanity.²⁶ Since the term reactionary is most commonly employed to indicate the desire to preserve the *status quo* in

²² *Cuestionarios Para los Estudios del Bachillerato*, supra., pp. 18-24.

²³ *Manual de Educación Política*, supra., pp. 25-35.

²⁴ Theodore Brameld, "President Hutchins and the New Reaction," *Educational Forum*, March, 1937.

²⁵ Together with Walter Farrell, O. P., Professor Mortimer J. Adler wrote "The Theory of Democracy" in *The Thomist*, Vol. III, April, 1941 through Vol. VI, January, 1944. In this article Professor Adler takes a stand in favor of liberal social, economic, and political doctrines. He has recorded himself in the same vein in other writings.

²⁶ Jacques Maritain, *Scholasticism and Politics* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940). Maritain's other writings attest the same liberalism.

economic, political, and social thinking, it should not be loosely applied to all authoritarians.

Hutchins, Adler, and Maritain are authoritarians because they believe that Reason, a faculty of all men, is capable of disclosing absolute truths, truths that hold for all men under all circumstances. Hutchins, Adler, and Maritain, to single out three of the most influential representatives of rational humanism, bitterly assail what they call relativism, sophism, scientism, and positivism. *Intellectually* they are authoritarians. It is a matter of conjecture whether that intellectual authoritarianism would not best fit a totalitarian state. There is reason to wonder how long the liberalism of Hutchins, Adler, and Maritain would be tolerated in a society where authoritarianism went beyond the intellectual. In Spain, at least in terms of the *Nueva Ríspida*, it is a sin to think the ideas sponsored by liberals.⁴⁷

American education contains elements of anti-democratic authoritarianism but much stronger forces buttress our schools against authoritarianism. The churches and the state are separate.

⁴⁷ Although this essay is about aspects of Spanish education, the authoritarianism ascribed to Spain is equally applicable to Russia. [In his *Origins of Russian Communism*, Nicholai Berdyaev explains the possibility of viewing Russia as a theocracy where Communism, as interpreted by the Politburo, is the state religion and where there is evidence of hero worship akin to that accorded Caesar Augustus by the Romans.] Reflections of authoritarianism in Russian education may be gleaned from *I Want to be Like Stalin* written by George S. Counts and N. P. Lodge (New York: The John Day Co., 1947).

⁴⁸ *Supra.*, p. 4.

⁴⁹ Two of the more recent studies illustrating the thought being given to the problem of differentiating education within a common demo-

There is no state religion in the United States. Education is locally controlled. The line-and-staff administration common to continental European schools is not a favored type of organization in this country. Our public schools are tuition-free and, while much remains to be done by way of equalizing educational opportunity, a great number of young people can and do receive secondary schooling. Moreover, there is recognition of individual differences. The trend is towards adapting education to the needs of students. This would not be a trend to be found in Spain. In Spain, as in most European nations, there are different schools for future workers, white collar employees, and candidates for the positions of greater leadership. Cadre schools for an elite, similar to those established by Hitler, prepare select Spanish youth to succeed the country's present rulers. In a sense there is differentiation of education in Spain, but it is distinction by class. The children of the poor have almost no opportunity to avoid the worker's education and no system of state scholarships can insure true social mobility when educational opportunities parallel class distinctions.

Private secondary schools in Spain outnumber public secondary schools ten-to-one.⁵⁰ In the United States differentiation in courses-of-study, as between those who do not intend to enter college and those anticipating higher education, is attempted within the same general education. There are private schools but leaders in education are devoted to helping the public schools meet the needs of all the children.⁵¹ The phenomenal growth in guidance and personnel and

counseling services afforded students of the public schools attest the consciousness of individuals and their problems.⁴⁰

cratic society are *Education for All American Youth* and *General Education in a Free Society*, Report of the Harvard Committee, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1945. The Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D.C., 1944.

* Individual differences and individuation have attracted most of the attention of educational students within the past two decades but experiments in intercultural education and community surveys and class projects merit notice. American educators are trying to do justice to the individual seen as a social construct. This is non-academic, in the traditional and European interpretation of academic, and is hardly given lip service in European schools.

* Educational philosophy is making remarkable progress. Illustrative of its sophistication and practicality is *The Discipline of Practical Judgment in a Democratic Society*, XXVIII Yearbook of the National Society of College Teachers of

One could detail endless examples of the individuation of instruction within the common democratic framework of American schools. Each example would be important because it denotes an eagerness to preserve democracy.

Equally significant is the development of educational philosophy. It is widely acknowledged that education in this country must have direction, however experimental. Authoritarianism will enter into American schools only if those formulating theory and policy are not thoughtfully vigilant.⁴¹

Education, edited by Kenneth D. Benne, B. Othanel Smith, George E. Axtell, and R. Bruce Raup, Chairman, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1943.

The qualifications of self-government are not innate. They are the result of habit and long training, and for these they will require time and probably much suffering.—THOMAS JEFFERSON

Faith

MATTHEW KRIM



With faith an epic melody is born
That pipes the host along well-trodden ways
Where music beckoned men in other days:
Unmindful all how deep the lane is worn.
While night-bred hope still welcomes each new morn
The dance whirls on toward where the vision lays,
Until somehow the tune no longer plays
And shadows move to hide a dream now torn.

Who hearkens to this mystic roundelay
That swells the heart—to dash it into dust?
A fool, indeed, but valiant fool withal.
Who knows the music dies, and sits today
Content to listen not where others must?
Complacent fool! A barren soul grows small.

Popular and Professional Misconceptions Concerning the Teaching Profession

G. LESTER ANDERSON

I. INTRODUCTION

THE TITLE of this paper perhaps makes an assumption that is a current popular and professional misconception. This is the assumption that teaching is *professional*. Conceptions about teaching which we hold are generalizations and like all generalizations in a social field there are many exceptions. Perhaps at times the exceptions outnumber what seem to be the supporting or confirming facts, and we then have a misconception. It is therefore possible that one of our most persistent self-delusions is that teaching is not only an occupation but also a profession. This shall be one of the assumptions which we shall evaluate. Many generalizations concerning teachers and teaching can be sorted into conflicting pairs. If not conflicting, then they are at least paradoxical. Let us enumerate some of them.

Some call teaching a profession; others would deny its right to assume a professional status. Caricatures present teaching as the occupation of old maids, yet others would contend that teachers are chiefly young maidens waiting to be married. Business groups sometimes say that teachers are radicals, and less politely, communistic; evidence seems to indicate that the majority of teachers are quite conservative as a social group. Our colleagues in the liberal arts say that public school teachers have long since

forgotten worthy academic traditions and are without intellectual standards, but the teacher of professional education courses holds that these same teachers seem so wedded to the academic tradition that necessary adjustments cannot be made in public school curricula.

As personalities, teachers are often considered by some to be withdrawn and introverted, to others teachers are only too apt to flaunt community mores, and must be kept in social bounds by contracts that rigidly prescribe how they shall live. Teachers whisper that they are underpaid; the taxpayers shout that teachers are paid too much. Teachers feel insecure, while critics of the school contend that tenure laws have given security even to the unfit. Teachers claim to be overworked; other occupational groups are envious of the extended vacations teachers are alleged to enjoy. Teachers are in turn called exploited and exploiting, dominated by the school administrator and dictating to the school administration, snobbish and dominating and in turn subservient or obsequious, stupid then pedantic and academic, regimenters of children and youth and at the same time unable to discipline or control youth, traditionalist and again ultra-progressive, a profession for females only, a profession in which only men "get the breaks." Wherein

As one sets out to describe teaching as an occupation and the teacher as a personality he has taken on an imposing task. This is true because of extreme diversities in teaching and among teachers. Teaching is not a homogeneous profession. First, more than one million persons call themselves teachers. There are more teachers than there are persons in all other professional groups combined. Perhaps any occupation enrolling one million persons would find great diversity in its ranks by virtue of the genetic and social facts of individual differences. If the fact of variability gives confirmation that there are certain to be teachers of little training and ineffective performance, by the same token it gives assurance that there are teachers of excellent training and effective performance.

Our forty-eight state systems of public education have resulted in forty-eight systems of certification and teacher education, and forty-eight sets of differing standards. Indeed, the actual situation is even more diverse than that which would be guaranteed by forty-eight systems. In actuality many states have no uniform state programs, but education is largely local and autonomous in character. We likewise have teachers in public and in private schools, in city and in rural schools, in elementary schools, and in junior and senior high schools. We have educators who are teachers, educators who supervise teachers, and administrators who never teach. All belong to the profession. This is but to remind us that generalizations concerning one group often are completely invalid for another. When one describes

a teacher we must know whether a Minnesota, a Mississippi, or a California teacher is described. We must know if the teacher is in a one-room rural Minnesota school, or in Pittsburgh or Long Beach. It makes a difference.

When we urge an able and personable young man to educate himself for teaching we may see him twenty-five years hence as the effective head of a large city system or as the director of a program of teacher education. He may, however, see himself twenty-five years hence as a shuffling classroom teacher, dull, pedantic, and unrewarded. Just as we must honestly acknowledge that his projection has been too often accurate, let us also be sure that he acknowledges the prospects which we project.

2. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

It was not enough to study an individual as of a given date if we are to know him well. The physician collects his case histories and only then does he feel that symptoms can be understood and correct diagnoses be made. Children must be studied genetically if they are to be understood and educated. So perhaps it is with education. We can better understand what we are and what we are to become if we know the road we have traveled.

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers some years ago traced in its reports the development of teacher education and the status of teachers in America. Of the period 1839 to 1865 the authors of this report say this:

The qualifications of typical elementary teachers were represented throughout the

period (that is 1839 to 1865) by upper elementary school preparation. Even normal school graduates, who were relatively limited in numbers, typically could claim little more than a certain amount of secondary school preparation, plus limited professional work. In Massachusetts, where conditions were not far from the best, salaries of men teachers in 1839-40 averaged \$33.08 per month; and salaries of women teachers, \$12.75. The status of teachers improved very slowly. There were not enough normal schools, normal departments, or teachers' institutes to do more than make good beginnings toward meeting almost universal needs for trained teachers.¹

Of the period which follows 1865 and runs to 1890, the authors of this report continue,

The number of teachers approximately doubled . . . , totaling more than one-third of a million in 1890. Salaries were higher, school terms longer, and teachers qualifications higher in 1890 than 1865. However, improvements in the status of teachers, while appreciable, was slow.

Even at the close of the period, the number of normal school graduates was quite inadequate to meet the country's need for trained teachers. The typical teacher did not have the equivalent of high school graduation until after the beginning of the twentieth century.²

The story of this century is perhaps better known. The National Survey in reporting on the forty years from 1890 to 1930 tells of the increase in number

¹ National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. V. *Special Survey Studies*, Washington: Department of Interior, 1935, p. 11.

² *Ibid.*, p. 24-25.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 48-51.

⁴ Evenden, Edward S. "Twenty-five Years of Teacher Training." *Educational Record*, 24:334-44. October, 1943.

of teachers and school administrators to 1,037,605. The report continues:

The rise in levels of preparation of teachers has been greater since 1890 than during any other period of like length in the entire history of the country. In 1890 and before, the typical elementary teacher had received preparation to a level distinctly below the equivalent of high school graduation. Most of the students did not remain to graduate from normal schools, and a large number of elementary teachers never attended these institutions.

High school teachers received more preparation than elementary teachers, but their numbers were relatively small in 1890. . . . possibly 60 per cent had completed a college course. . . . However, (by 1930) the typical preparation of high-school teachers (was) college graduation. . . .

The salaries of teachers have materially increased over the years. Always there have been great variations in preparation and in salaries in different places and among different types of teachers.

In 1870, the average annual salary of all teachers was \$189; in 1890, \$252; in 1920, \$871; and in 1930, \$1,420. In purchasing power the actual increase has been less.³

In 1943, Evenden brought us relatively up to date in our history. At that time he wrote of the twenty-five year period following World War I. Evenden says: "The period has probably seen more changes and more advances in the education of teachers than any other period in our history."⁴

The history of teaching since 1930 is still confused. We know that ground was lost respecting salaries during the thirties, but the oversupply of teachers, which was in part an under-consump-

tion, permitted some states and some school systems to raise the level of training and quality of teachers. The full impact of the work of the Commission on Teacher Education which covers the period 1938-1943 is yet to be determined. With great rapidity the oversupply of the 1930's became a shortage far more critical than that of the period of World War I.

While salaries increased in the 1940's, it was only very recently that the salary level of 1930 was attained, and only in 1947 is it believed that salaries increased to give the equivalent in purchasing power of salaries which teachers earned in 1938.

World War II ended three years ago; the present is still a time of educational crisis. As your personality inclines you, I shall let you be pessimistic or optimistic concerning the history of teaching which shall be written in 1970 of the 40 years following 1930.

Elsbree recognized the importance of viewing the occupation in historical perspective and recently summarized the import of this history. He stated: "Any one familiar with the history of education and especially with the development of the teaching profession, cannot fail to be impressed with the steady progress made over the years. . . . Our profession has made phenomenal gains." He then observed that while "many facts could be cited to show the tremendous progress which has been made . . . after they have been properly accredited

it will be obvious to any intelligent observer that we are far from the finish line and other professions have advanced even more rapidly."²⁶

As we attempt then to clarify our conceptions concerning teaching, let us not lose the perspective which history gives us of teaching as a vocation. Let neither us nor those whom we would have become teachers misconstrue or misunderstand, first, that teaching as an occupation has come a long way since the days which antedated Horace Mann, but second, that teaching should and can move faster and farther toward full professional status.

3. FOUR ASPECTS OF THE STATUS OF TEACHERS

We shall deal in the next section of this paper with four aspects of the teachers' status—intellectual and educational, professional, economic, and social. All four aspects are interwoven and each conditions in some respect status in another. However, misconceptions and misinterpretations of status in each of these four areas have prevailed, and we shall deal with each in a somewhat systematic fashion.

a. Intellectual and Educational Status

Some persons, most frequently those who are particularly gifted or who are members of high status occupational groups, consider teachers to be intellectually inferior to members of certain of the recognized professions. An accurate answer to the question of the intellectual competence of teachers should be important. Early studies on the prediction

²⁶ Elsbree, W. S., "Next Steps for the Teaching Profession," *Teachers College Record*, 47:243-50, January, 1946.

of training success did not show that intelligence correlated highly with teaching competency, but more recent studies⁶ show that, as the criterion of competency is better defined, there may be substantial correlation.

Data on the intellectual aptitude and achievement of teachers in training have indicated that they do not compare favorably with those preparing for the professions of law, medicine, or engineering. The Pennsylvania study showed the mediocrity of students preparing for teaching. Learned and Wood state, "The test records tend to confirm the conclusion as to the limited mental ability of the individuals who are being especially prepared for teaching."⁷ The findings of this report have become well known.

Traxler more recently gave his answer to this question, "Are Students in teachers colleges greatly inferior in ability?" He based his answer upon data reported for the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. Over a ten year period from 1935 to 1944 he found that the estimated Otis equivalent IQ's of average freshmen in teachers colleges and four year colleges was 108.8 and 112.6 respectively. This is a difference of 3.8 IQ points. He

⁶ See Barr, A. S., "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," *Review of Educational Research*, 16:203-208, June, 1946.

⁷ Learned, William S. and Wood, Ben D. *The Student and His Knowledge*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938, p. 333.

⁸ Traxler, Arthur E. "Are Students in Teachers Colleges Greatly Inferior in Ability?" *School and Society*, 63:105-107, February 16, 1946.

⁹ Editorial, *School and Society*, 63:108, February 16, 1946.

concludes from the analyses of these data:

The average intelligence among freshmen in teachers colleges is consistently and significantly lower than the average intelligence among freshmen in four-year colleges and is about equal to that in junior colleges. The difference in averages, however, is fairly small in absolute terms, and there is great overlapping in distributions. In general, half the teachers college students surpass approximately two-fifths of those in four year colleges. The answer to the question is that students in teachers colleges are significantly, but not greatly inferior in ability to those in four-year colleges.⁸

The key word in Traxler's question is the word "greatly." There is little question that teachers college students are significantly inferior statistically. Are they "greatly" inferior? It might be pointed out that four year college students differ as much from teachers college students as teachers college students differ from typical high school students. The average I.Q. of the latter is ordinarily given as 105. This is exactly the 3.8 points below the teachers college freshmen that teachers college freshmen are below four year college freshmen.

Bagley commented editorially on Traxler's conclusion.⁹ The data, Bagley states, "would seem to make (the teachers colleges) the least selective of all higher institutions. A plain inference from the evidence presented is that half the recruits for the teaching service are drawn from a population that represents at best the lower 40 per cent of the high school graduates who enter higher institutions."

When statistics are being interpreted,

there is difference of opinion as to what they mean. Great overlap in the distributions of ability means that many superior people are electing to teach. Those in education who continue their training into the graduate levels and who assume positions of leadership in administrative and supervisory positions in the public schools, in state departments of education and in the education of teachers unquestionably compare favorably in ability with those in the other professions. Likewise those who teach at the college level, who are teachers if they are not educationists, are distinctly superior intellectually. Miller, at the University of Minnesota, has studied the ability of those men who do graduate work in representative fields including education, and has estimated that the median IQ of this group is 139. Those who rank at the twenty-fifth percentile of graduate students at Minnesota will have an average IQ of 132.¹⁰ We are confronted with the ubiquitous fact of the great heterogeneity of the teaching population. We find among teachers the ability we look for. If we look to see if inferior people enter teaching, we find that they do. If we look to see if superior people enter teaching, again we find them present to answer "here." It is a misconception that teaching enrolls as capable minds, on the average, as does *any other* professional group.

b. Professional Status

We implied in our introductory statements that to assume that teaching was fully professional was perhaps an egre-

gious professional misconception. Various criteria have been proposed by which an occupation can be judged. We would include (1) the necessity for a body of professional knowledge, (2) this knowledge scientifically derived, (3) members of the occupation showing high technical proficiency, and (4) members competent to render professional judgment.

Research in education, which has been pursued assiduously for almost half a century, has produced a body of knowledge derived scientifically. Many persons who pursue educational endeavors show high technical skill and continuously make professional judgments. On the basis of these criteria, then, we can say that many educational personnel are professional. Among these I would include college teachers, school administrators including supervisors and principals, and a considerable number of urban elementary and secondary school teachers.

The question is, however, not quite so easily disposed of. There are symptoms in the "body education" which indicate that all criteria are not readily satisfied.

What is the level of training of those who teach? What does this level signify concerning education's professional character? By 1940 only a third of the states required that all elementary school teachers should be college graduates. True, the move in this direction has been general among the states. By 1940 all but four states had adopted a minimum requirement of four years of college education for secondary school teachers while a half dozen states and many cities required five. But this still leaves large segments of the teaching

¹⁰ Miller, W. S. *Manual of Analogies Test*.

force without training equivalent to the first degree. We cannot docilely accept this condition by supporting the thesis held by some that the elementary school teacher does not need the general or professional education that we now require of the secondary teacher. Some states today, and all are not in the South, still permit teachers to be certificated without one hour of collegiate training.

Too many, both within teaching and without, have a misconception that teaching does not require mastery of a body of *professional* content. To know one's field of teaching is, for some, enough. These persons are not aware of the great body of research in educational psychology, methodology, curriculum, and other fields that has been accumulating in the last fifty years. One statement in the Harvard Report is scarcely comprehensible when one reads that educators served on the committee which produced it. This group reports that there "must come . . . a struggle against excessive technical requirements for the teaching license. No doubt some such requirements are beneficial—say, six or eight hours in practice teaching and educational psychology, instead of the sixteen or eighteen hours in these and other subjects now commonly asked."¹¹ No teacher should be considered professionally trained who has such meager training in professional education.

A closely related problem is the question of the integrity of the professional school of education. It has often been

pointed out that teachers colleges do not receive the financial support they merit as professional schools. The integrity of schools of education has recently been debated in the columns of *Schools and Society*. Judd has said that organization of separate institutions for preparation of elementary school teachers was a "major catastrophe." He has also said that "the preparation for competent teaching in the present day American elementary and secondary schools calls for an education of the same subjects that the present day college teaches." We cannot agree. Typical college literature classes do not provide future teachers of adolescents with content suitable to be taught these secondary school youth. Future teachers must be equipped with a knowledge of adolescent literature that present collegiate English instructors are patently not equipped to give. The urgent need in American secondary education is for teachers who can escape the confining bounds of the academic traditions perpetuated in the colleges.

While the total educational forces of institutions must be marshalled if teachers are to be professionally educated, control of this education must rest in educators who are themselves professionally trained and who are preferably organized into strong schools or departments of education that, in Bagley's words, recognize "a professional purpose by name." Until such control is established, education will not have achieved full professional status.

Teaching sometimes fails attainment of full professional stature because teachers so often fail to act profes-

¹¹ Harvard Committee on General Education. *General Education in a Free Society*. Cambridge. Harvard University Press, 1945, p. 26.

sionally. Mort and Cornell have said that teachers are not seriously concerned with school improvement.¹² In the past they were seldom leaders, and today they are less so. They have been followers, neutral, often ignorant of educational need. Today they display the same equalities. On the other hand, teachers are becoming more aggressive in promoting measures conducive to their own welfare, in setting up salary schedules, in demanding collective bargaining, and in demanding leadership in professional organizations. When teachers work as aggressively for the welfare of children, and when they vigorously police their profession by raising and enforcing standards, they will have made one further step required if they are to become truly professional.

Teaching today cannot be considered fully professional because many who are trained as teachers do not make it a permanent career. Full capacity to render professional judgment probably comes only with the maturing and mellowing effects of long experience. The average tenure of teachers is somewhat hard to determine, and it is probably increasing. Best estimates are, that on the average, teachers teach from 6 to 8 years. However, in the last five years we have witnessed an exodus from teaching that will distort for a long period any concepts of average or percentage of turnover. It is estimated that at least a third of the teachers permanently left

the profession during the war years. In a true profession members do not leave it for more immediate personal or economic advantage. Some will immediately counter that the hundreds of thousands of teachers who remained to teach, even when there was apparent immediate advantage in leaving teaching, is evidence of a great body of professionally motivated and professionally minded teachers. Such evidence can be accepted.

Teaching, then, is an occupation of hierarchies. Some of these, such as college teaching and school administration, are truly professional. But as long as the majority of the rural teachers of a state such as Minnesota, numbering 5000, have less than one year of collegiate training, and as long as teacher training departments of some 30 high schools of that state in a recent year turned out as many certificated teachers as did the state university, teaching can make no claims to having attained full professional status.

c. Economic Status

What are the common conceptions concerning the economic status of teachers? Following the first World War the economic status measurably improved. This improvement was noticeable for a dozen years, but the recession of the early thirties prevented any new gain in economic status for a ten-year period.

In 1940, the average annual salary in the United States of public school teachers, principals, and supervisors was \$1,441. This does not differ significantly from the average of \$1,417 for 1931-32.

¹² Mort, Paul R., and Cornell, Francis G. *American Schools in Transition*. Chapter II. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.

During the war, this average increased until in 1945 it was \$1,786. But the Council on Co-operation in Teacher Education asks, "Where did this increase of 24 per cent in four years leave the teachers? It left them, because of higher prices, with less purchasing power than they had had at the start. It left them far behind full-time employees in private industry, whose average annual earnings had climbed 56 per cent in three years, to put industrial workers, even in 1943, \$437 a year ahead of teachers. It left the teachers, in 1945, receiving on the average less than the salary a bright sixteen-year-old boy, not yet through high school, could earn as a filing clerk in a government office."¹³

Such generalization as can be drawn from the data on teachers' salaries are known to us all. They have led us to conclude that economically teaching is an unattractive occupation. There is, again, another side that should be examined. When average or median salaries are quoted, then half the salaries lie below this figure and half above. When, in 1945, the average salary was approximately \$1,800, elementary teachers in the large cities were earning \$2,600, and high school teachers were earning \$3,200. High school principals were averaging \$5,000 and city superintendents were receiving on the average

more than \$9,000. We can assume that the economic status of those who make teaching a life occupation is superior to that of the teacher of average tenure of 6 to 10 years.

Douglass has claimed that a man may find as adequate rewards in teaching as in any other occupation. He states that the man with less than ten years of experience will earn more than the lawyer, physician, dentist or engineer of like experience. He asserts that "in proportion to the amount of college education he has had, the male educator is at least as well paid as the physician, dentist or attorney of the same number of years of experience." Douglass also feels that the other rewards of professional activity can be as satisfying for education as in other fields. Likewise, in periods of economic insecurity the educator seems to be in a preferred position as far as security and salary are concerned.¹⁴

If teaching has its limitations, it also has its compensations. The teacher who has achieved tenure status in an urban system has job security enjoyed by few others. In 1945, public school teachers in 47 states representing 99 per cent of all teachers were also protected by retirement plans. These advantages of security and retirement must not be minimized.

Today, teachers are militantly pursuing policies which will insure adequate economic rewards. If these are attained, as we believe they must and will be, we can fully support the Council on Co-operation in Teacher Education which proclaimed last summer:

With proper support available to American schools, the attractions of teaching as a

¹³ Executive Committee of the Council on Co-operation in Teacher Education, *The Crisis in Teaching*. American Council on Education, July 1946, p. 10.

¹⁴ Douglass, Harl R. "Is a Young Man Wise to Go into Education?" *Bulletin, National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 30:32-36, October, 1946.

lifework can be presented to able young men and women effectively and in good conscience. To well-prepared teachers, decently paid, provided with good leadership and adequate tools, and granted the esteem of their co-workers and the lay community, the satisfactions of their profession are great indeed. For it is a great thing to help to guide the growth and development of children and to serve the vital interests of society.¹⁵

d. Social Status

Finally, what of the social status of the teacher? Social status is on one hand an effect of status enjoyed in the other aspects with which we have dealt. At the same time social status of teachers conditions particularly the quality of persons who will be drawn into teaching and the financial rewards given them.

The enrollment figures for teacher education institutions can be used to indicate the low social status of teaching. In 1940-41, there were 325,000 students enrolled in the teachers colleges of this country. In 1942-43 this number had declined to 212,000 and in 1945-46, was at the unbelievable low figure of 65,000. Emergency certificates had increased in the meantime from 5,000 to 110,000.

The Statistical Circular of the U. S. Office of Education dated November 20, 1946, presented an estimated enrollment in teachers colleges for fall 1946 at 150,000. This is more than double the fall, 1945 figures, but is still less

¹⁵ The Executive Committee of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. *The Crisis in Teaching*, American Council on Education, July, 1946, p. 12.

¹⁶ Stevens, Benjamin A. "The Barriers to Teacher Recruiting." *Education Digest*, 10:35-37, April 1945.

than 50 per cent of the 1940-41 enrollment. In the meantime, enrollments in all collegiate institutions for fall, 1946 was at 2,078,000 as compared to 1940-41 enrollments of approximately 1,300,000. While total collegiate enrollments were almost doubling from the last pre-war year to the first postwar year, teachers college enrollments had not returned to normal. Does anyone believe that if education had the social prestige of medicine, law, or engineering that these teacher education institutions would not now be filled to capacity?

Reasons why young people do not think of teaching as a desirable profession were recently reported by Stevens. They included (a) weak education departments in the colleges and universities, (b) salaries not comparable to those in comparable service professions, (c) restrictions on the teachers' social life, (d) teachers do not consider their work professional, rather it is a means of earning a living, and (e) childhood experiences with teachers did not inspire them in turn to become teachers.¹⁶

What do teachers themselves think of the occupation they have selected? The report of the Research Division of the National Education Association on the percentage of teachers who would again select teaching if they were to start over may be variously interpreted. The majority of urban and rural teachers felt the chances were even or better that they would again select teaching. However, the majority of both urban and rural men said that the chances were even or better that they would not. Thirty-one per cent of urban men and 37 per cent of rural men said they

probably or certainly would not again become teachers should they start their college days over. Slightly less than 50 per cent of each group said they probably or certainly would again select teaching. The responses of women were more favorable.¹⁷

The consensus of educators concerning the social position of the profession may be inferred from Lafferty's study. Lafferty secured the comments of educators as to their opinion of the social status of teachers.¹⁸ He found that teachers are expected to lead a life radically different from that of other people. They are more or less isolated and subject to many so-called "persecutions," and women teachers are forbidden the normal functions of life in marriage. Teachers are not vital members of a social group, and they are given little respect by the adult world. Teaching has no background of rich heritage to give the profession dignity and security, and today there is a general defeatist attitude that teachers can do little to change conditions.

Lafferty's investigation was made in 1941. Since that time teachers have become more aggressive. The defeatist attitude is less marked. The growth of membership in the teachers federations and the resort to strikes, are evidence. Many of us wish that the great professional organizations would also show a more militant spirit and attitude than they have yet been disposed to assume

¹⁷ NEA Research Bulletin. *The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration*, 23: No. 4, December 1945.

¹⁸ Lafferty, Harry M. "Social Status of the Teacher." *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 27:641, December 1941.

in securing for teaching those things which will give it social status.

4. CONCLUSION

That the status of teachers as a professional group is subject to varied interpretations must be evident by now. A substantial percentage of persons in education are highly trained, intelligent, accepted socially, consider their work to be professional in character, would choose to teach again, financially are adequately rewarded, are stable in tenure and are secure in their positions. Another group, also persons in education and substantial in number, are ill-trained, mediocre in aptitude, socially isolated, demonstrate in their work that they consider teaching to be a job rather than a profession, would not choose to teach again if the choice were to be remade, leave teaching if suitable alternatives open, are poorly paid, unstable in tenure, and insecure in their employment.

If we are at the moment attempting to enlist able young people in the profession we point to the first class of fully professional teachers. If we consider groups which must be raised to a professional status, if we lobby for increased standards of certification or minimum salary laws we point to the second class.

Misconceptions arise when we generalize from a few cases. They arise when we look to one state or one region, to rural school only, or urban school only, or when we think only of teachers as women. In a dozen other ways we fail to qualify our generalizations. We report averages and forget variability. We recall the forty or sixty per cent of

teachers who fit our observation and ignore the sixty or forty per cent who become exceptions.

If, rather than attempting to provide the answer to the question, "What are teachers like?" we should call on that mythical man from Mars to provide the answer, he would probably reply:

1. I am impressed with the great numbers of teachers as compared with any other professional group. They march 1,000,000 strong in the service of youth.

2. I am surprised that the teaching population is largely feminine and that teachers teach but so short a time. Teaching is not a life work for many; for women on the way to marriage, it is an interim appointment.

3. I find a startling variety of activities in which teachers engage. They may teach arithmetic or anthropology, vocational guidance or vector analysis. They may be supervisors, principals, superintendents, counselors, deans, college presidents, school psychologists, or audio-visual experts, as well as classroom teachers.

4. I find that teachers often assume a professional status but less often assume the responsibilities or privileges of professional people. They have been unorganized, poorly paid, restricted in social opportunities and privileges, exploited, and are often denied political

and religious freedom. Some communities seem to deny teachers all the four freedoms: freedom of speech, freedom of religion, freedom from fear, freedom from want. They often fail to equip themselves through training, or cultural and professional activities to exercise professional judgment. They are often mere technicians.

5. Paradoxically, I discover that teachers are often self-sacrificing and altruistic. They live for others, dedicating themselves in a real sense to the service of youth. They attend summer school, travel, and in other ways attempt to improve themselves for their task. Unquestionably teachers are persons of character and culture, and although sometimes circumscribed, stand as examples of the good citizen.

6. Finally, I find it hard, despite the idea of the teacher type, to categorically state that teachers are thus and so. Teachers are just people; occasionally wealthy, more often poor; sometimes brilliant, frequently good average, occasionally dull; at times radical, frequently liberal, most often following the road of middle class conservatism, occasionally downright reactionary; they are moral, upright, conscientious, timid, introverted, patient. Teachers are you and I. (Note that the author has written I, not me. That also is being a teacher!)

A technician is a man who understands everything about his job except its ultimate purpose and its place in the order of the universe.

—SIR RICHARD LIVINGSTONE

Do Children Know Who Are the Best Teachers?

LOUIS ADA WILSON

I

THE LAYMAN is much concerned when the superintendent is unable to secure for his child an accredited teacher. Current news and literature have pointed out some of the causes for the national teacher shortage.

These causes, as reported, were fostered by the local communities, and their inhabitants. Therefore, these had caused young women to choose other professions. None of these articles had considered causes within the profession.

In a recent article written by a university professor and published by a professional magazine is a good illustration of professional thoughtlessness. It condemned teachers more than was justifiable when we consider the source from which the condemnation was derived. Teachers are given an admonishing for traits which were attributed to them in letters from school pupils. Professionally do they deserve this? Do other professional journals attack members of their groups for personal qualities described by immature and lay people?

The article¹ was an analysis of letters from approximately 14,000 young and adolescent children in grades two to twelve. The writer presents desirable and undesirable traits of teachers, which

he had formulated from letters, that were written to describe "the teacher who helped me most." Then he offered generalizations for teachers' improvement of personalities.

The desirable traits were: "co-operation, democratic attitude; kindness and consideration for this individual; patience; widespread interests; . . ." These were illustrated by excerpts from the children's letters. *Widespread interests!* Most teachers can't afford widespread interests, for neither time nor money is available for their indulging themselves: A teacher may have two or three interests, but widespread interest would be difficult if they are to do a good job of teaching and take care of themselves physically and mentally. The author illustrated his point by quoting the children's letters:

One child describes his teacher, "using other books than textbooks, and taking us on trips" . . . another, "not only is Miss X a good teacher, she is the rare person, a well-rounded individual, with many facets to her personality. Her skill in athletics has endeared her to all her pupils. Poetry must be second nature to her. A stumbling and forgetful student is rescued by her nimble memory." . . .

What is the meaning of *rare person*? Some people are highly esteemed, but it seems others are rare because they have adolescent reactions. Then, too, why should skill in athletics endear a

¹ Paul A. Witty, "The Teacher Who Helped Most," *Elementary English* (October, 1947) pp. 345-354.

teacher to *all* her students? Could she be the physical education teacher? The last sentence in the quotation is tops in ambiguity.

This criticism is not aimed at the children's letters, but toward "what" were the situations which provoked these childish statements? These expressions may be "high sounding" but they were made by young and adolescent children in response to someone's request for a letter.

II

Undesirable traits for the teachers were formulated from the negative illustrations which were used to describe "a teacher who helped me most." Is this fair? Psychologists have advised that the meaning of adults should never be projected from children's actions; this advice will necessarily follow for children's writings also.

The teachers with undesirable traits described were: "Bad tempered and intolerant; sarcastic and inclined to use ridicule. . . ." The first point was made from the following quotations taken from the children's letters:

She doesn't yell, holler, scream, shout, get angry, and fuss. . . .

Such expressions could merely have been a demonstration of children's inability to express themselves in positive statements. Upon hearing or reading such remarks, any wise person might ask, "What did you do to cause the teacher to act so?" Parents should wisely suggest, "Conduct yourself in such a manner that the teacher doesn't yell again."

Intolerance has become a trite word. Teachers should be intolerant toward

lying, dishonesty, rudeness, greed, snobbishness, et cetera.

The individual child who selected the facts which illustrate the phrase or idea, "a teacher who helped me most," may have colored these facts by his attitude of mind. Charges of unfairness and favoritism must always be weighed when made as personality characteristics. An example: Learning in school is not the same as purchases over the counter. In school the teacher-pupil relationship is not the same as clerk and purchaser. In school values take on significant differences, and some dimes are worth more and others less. A class preparation is assigned. James has an excuse for work poorly prepared, yet the excuse is not accepted, but when Mary has no preparation, an excuse is accepted. James is well kept, happy, has much leisure time, and no cares. Mary takes care of three children before and after school, because Mother works. Just change the above names, as, James to Negro pupil and Mary to White pupil and some children will describe the incident as *unfair and inclined to favorites, intolerant*.

One can question pupils and find that they seldom ascribe dignity to correction. Correct an individual for his behavior, and usually what report reverberates from it? Probably he says, "Bawled me out"; or perhaps, "Old Crab."

Often children are conditioned so that they are motivated only by their personal likes and dislikes. The infantile and emotional habit carries over into the school and becomes an alibi or defense mechanism for not conforming to neces-

sary classroom conventions used for the comfort of all, whether the teacher is formal or informal in her teaching procedure. Youth should learn from the teacher and disregard his *personal* like or dislike of her. He should get from school the things he has come for. . . .

It is indeed necessary to remember that children have degrees of mentality; that their desires are not always in conformity to realities; that their experiences are lacking; and that their interpretations of situations are certainly not on the adult level. Their judgments of teachers are often on a level we must ignore.

III

The author made suggestions for improvement in teacher personality:

. . . The first responsibility of the teacher therefore is to provide a classroom atmosphere in which success, security, understanding, mutual respect, and opportunity to attain worthy educational goals are all pervading.

Why give all these responsibilities to the teacher? She cannot possibly obtain this "classroom atmosphere" without sufficient help from pupils—(pupil co-operation is also a good pupil personality trait)—officials, and colleagues, together with materials, supplies, right equipment, sufficient furnishings, adequate floor space, etc., and with freedom from administrative regulations, which conflict with principles for obtaining the "atmosphere" for the accomplishment of worthy educational objectives.

The last three paragraphs in the arti-

cle were generalizations concerning ways of helping improve teacher personality. Examples from the article:

1. . . . free themselves from a large number of persistent infantile reactions and emotional compulsions. . . .

Since infantile reactions and emotional compulsions are forms of frustration, one would say here, that teachers need more assistance, materials, and likely fewer students. What were the disturbing elements in the teaching situation that cause these frustrations which children have illustrated?

2. . . . the ideal of self which she holds should be expressed by the kind of personality which youth will find sufficiently attractive to emulate, not reject or avoid.

Can not teachers develop their own personalities? Does a teacher have to develop a personality for the *innumerable varieties of pupils* whom she teaches, so youth will find her sufficiently attractive to emulate? If so, she would then have a kind of chameleonic personality. How could she possibly grow up or mature? The author should reread some of the literature on interpreting personality. One which gives a wholesome comment, "*I presume most of the people in Who's Who In America* would resent being called normal."²

This second suggestion for improving teacher personality continued.

3. . . . For too many teachers, consciously or unconsciously, hold an ideal of self in which deprivations, denial, and abstinence are powerful elements. In some cases, this ideal results in a denial of many normal appetites and satisfactions. Such a personality tends to alienate children and young people. In order to alter this situation, the teacher

² Karl A. Menninger, *The Human Mind*, 1930, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., p. ix.

should seek to reshape her ideal self in accord with the requirements of a hygienic life design.

The author does not explain his meaning or what appetites are to be satisfied.

4. . . When we can throw off the age-old belief that human nature is innately wicked, sinful . . .

Surely in this our day teachers know that children are conditioned by their environmental influence to act or to behave as they do. The teacher may or may not be responsible for children's behavior and their statements.⁵ Teachers also are conditioned to behave as they do.

The article further pointed out that the hygienic classroom is one permeated by a spirit of friendliness, sympathetic concern, and genuine affection. One usually thinks of *hygienic classroom* in terms of light, heat, ventilation, cleanliness, sanitation, and adjustable desk and seating and equipment suitable for the age of the learner. However, if he means the *mental hygienic classroom* is one in which there is a spirit of friendliness, sympathetic concern and genuine affection, then there will be little disagreement, but it is the belief of authority in mental hygiene that "The accepted and increasing interest in mental hygiene among educators is evidence that prog-

ress is being made in the application of the *preventive principles* of the science in both schools and colleges. The greater headway has been made in dealing with *disabilities and maladjusted children*."⁶

IV

Here is a professional article published in a professional magazine, which submits a list of teacher traits which have been derived from the writings of young and adolescent children, who were writing about a teacher who helped most. These lists are not based on reliable research. Any research which attempts to set-up personality traits for teachers should certainly come from mature people.

From recent reliable research⁷ we know that we cannot depend on paper-pencil tests from children for estimating their own character traits. Why then, accept as reliable children's paper-pencil estimates of their teachers?

On the other hand, the letters may show possible research for students of English and psychology. Is it easier to write through negative illustrations or positive illustrations? Why do children use the negative forms of illustrations when describing positive situations, and by what means may these children learn the positive approach to their written statements?

When one reads these suggestions for teachers, one immediately recognizes the attitude of a romanticist trying to adapt his absolutism. The premise of the new trend in education which impels upon the school today is the drive of romanticist upsetting the classicist's form of education. The major premise of the

⁵ American Council on Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (The record of Lawrence, 167-198) 1945, Commission on Teacher Education, American Council of Education.

⁶ Ernest R. Groves and Catherine Groves, *Dynamic Mental Hygiene*, 1946, Stockpole Sons, p. 195.

⁷ Hugh Hartshorne and Mark S. May, *Studies in the Nature of Character*, 1934, Macmillan, New York.

new trend is concerned with the dynamics of teaching. There is amongst these well meaning educators, the romanticist who would establish his way of teaching, for example: the curriculum of this school of thought advocates that children should learn about their communities, and in doing so should learn co-operation and the human traits, as pointed out in Christ's teaching, as well as the skills necessary for academic study. Then, the well meaning educator publishes a book for the child to study, which, if the teacher uses it, is supposed to accomplish these objectives. The book, of course, defeats its own purpose. Teaching becomes formal and shows that, that which was romanticism has now become classicism.

In viewing a teacher's classroom procedures, one must see them in relation to universal truths, or see them as maintaining the orthodox way. Which would you choose for your child? Fortunately

the choice is not ours. Either way of procedure within the classroom is desirable for a teacher. We need both for a balance of power within the school system which stimulates children to emulate, to learn, to achieve, and develop to the extent of their potentialities.

It is essential in education to find the causes back of the problems in the classroom, and remove them; then the problems will disappear. Projecting adult meaning from children's negative comments about teachers, and advising that these are faults of teachers is contrary to fundamentals of education. Early in 1935, it was recommended by leaders of education that, "measuring teaching success . . . a major research problem." Personality is considered a major item in teaching success.^{6, 7} Therefore, it would follow that measuring or ascribing personality traits for teachers is also a major problem, one well calculated for leaders of education and certainly not from school children. Teachers have problems and it would be well for all of us to find the causes of their problems and help remove them.

⁶ The National Society of College Teachers of Education, *The Education of Teachers*, the University of Chicago Press, 1935, p. 235.

⁷ Anna Y. Reed, *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education*, Cornell University Press, 1944.

But after all, say what you will about radio, movies, and press—it's the teacher in the classroom that counts.—EDGAR DALE, in The News Letter

Our Heroes Return

OMA CARLYLE ANDERSON



When the gray ship comes into the harbor again,
Bringing home our proud, beloved dead;
When the salute of guns dies like a chain
Of thunder, and the heavy, ominous tread
Of marching boots is lost to the throbbing tide;
When flower tributes ride like a floral reef
On the weeping water by the gray ship's side,
Then how fast the frenzied tempo of our grief!

Like a thrust to the heart is the pain of sorrow
When last call of Taps hangs on trembling air—
Surely there can be peace on some soon tomorrow
If God will use our anguish for a prayer.

Promote All—in the Public Schools?

Lloyd H. Elliott

I

THE PRACTICE of promoting every child every year, provided the child attends school with some degree of regularity, seems to be gaining popularity over the country. One writer sets forth the theory of such practice as follows:¹

It has been conclusively demonstrated by well conducted experiments that for ensuring continued growth a much wiser and more profitable procedure than non-promotion is to adapt instruction to the needs of the pupils at all times, and at the end of the year to advance him to the next grade or class and there continue to adjust instruction to his needs.

One large school system has put the practice into everyday use, partly, at least, according to the following plan:²

The first four years of school will be called the early elementary school. These first four years of school life will be considered a unit. This means that:

A child will spend a year each in the kindergarten, first grade, second grade, and third grade.

In each year, the teacher will adapt the curriculum to the needs of each child. . . .

A child should have four years of enriched experiences.

This organization of the first four school years as a unit makes it possible for a child to progress from grade to grade according to his ability and at his own rate. The teacher's

¹ Leo J. Brueckner, *The Changing Elementary School*. Report of the Regents Inquiry. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1941, p. 89.

² *The Early Elementary School: A Handbook to Guide Teachers*, Minneapolis Public Schools, 1941, p. 39.

sole concern will be for the child's progress in relation to his ability. With this consideration for the four years of school as a unified, progressive experience, there will be less emphasis on each grade as a distinct and separate block, assigned with certain definite responsibilities. This organization should prove advantageous for each child. The bright child will go far beyond the usual standards for his grade; the slow child will achieve at his own level of ability.

The proponents of the policy of "promoting every child every year" are not without reasons for so doing. In this manner, they point out, the child may grow at his own rate. This is commendable. Few would suggest that an external rate of progress should be imposed on the child from without—that he should be forced to speed-up or slow-down in his progress rate. We have come to respect the pupil as an individual with personal capacities and abilities which are unlike those of any other pupil. At the same time we are all able to agree that children have many of these personal things in common—that similarities exist.

These differences among individual pupils are the source of much planning on the part of the teacher. Appeal must be made, it is felt, to each child. By promoting each child with his age group it may be possible to make a more careful diagnosis of the pupil's difficulties. Perhaps, it is possible to group children in classes and within classes in such a manner as to bring out the highest individual potentialities.

Numerous studies have been made to show that non-promotion too often leads to personal and social difficulties, to frustrated or unbalanced behavior in individuals. It is pointed out that the child's mental health is adversely affected by his failure of promotion with his age-group. The social relationships which accompany progress with the group are certainly very good. It would seem that a better self-respect on the part of the child is possible.

Doubts may arise, however, if certain questions are asked. Is there any danger that the pupil may reach a stage on the educational ladder where the activities of the group will become too complex for understanding? What can be done if the child should, by reason of his inability to progress as rapidly as the group, develop the feeling of mental frustration and anxiety within his group? Shall the teacher be so versed in diplomacy that such will remain, during all the years together, a secret from classmates? In other words, is it possible that the activities of a group, progressing as a group through certain stages of school life, might become of such complexity as to be of little meaning for the slowest member of that group? To follow a procedure of "promoting every child every year" would deny such a possibility—unless, it could be said, that all instruction would be of such an individualized nature that group activities would play only a negligible part in the educational pattern. If the latter be the case, then we must deny the former claim of progress in social relationships on which the non-failure theory relies so heavily.

II

But we are not yet at the root of the problem. An examination of the assumptions which underlie the non-failure practice would appear to be in order.

The reality of differences among individuals—energy, ability, and capacity—has long been known. Medical science tells us there are differences physically. Some children mature earlier than others; girls "grow-up" earlier than boys. The theory of readiness has generally been accepted in educational circles. We speak of reading-readiness at the primary level. But the point made everywhere along the line is that *individuals differ* in both physical and mental growth and development—in readiness for an experience. To start a group of children in the first grade at six or seven years of age (the beginning age matters not for the discussion herein presented) and to promote every one every year, simply denies the existence of differences among those individuals. If such differences are not denied, then they are minimized to the point where their importance is negligible.

Advocates of the non-failure theory, however, usually face the problem of individual differences from the back door. The statement is usually made that such differences do exist, but that they can be provided for adequately within the same group from year to year. To believe this view is to believe that the teacher is capable of meeting the individual's needs, regardless of the degree to which differences may grow within the 12-year span of public education.

A further assumption of the non-

failure policy is that the organizational plan of public education, that of the grade-to-grade or step-by-step pattern, must neither be challenged nor interrupted. It presupposes that each child must, to have the benefits of maximum growth, climb one rung of the educational ladder each year until he reaches the top. Such a belief denies that any normal child's experience could be made richer by stopping longer than the allotted time at any stage of the process. In other words, if the practice is one of yearly promotion, the belief is in educational dosage of a prescribed annual amount. It might be simplified then, by saying that public education in the United States is made-up of twelve parts. To partake of the full course necessitates school attendance of twelve years—no more, no less.

Such a theory of yearly promotion implies, too, that each class or group will be made up of pupils of approximately the same chronological age. It becomes then, a classification of pupils along mechanical lines. The mental development of the child is thus relegated to the role of minor importance. Such a grouping is only the initial mistake. Further tragedy develops as the group proceeds along the educational scale. Mental growth then becomes a mechanistic, organic sort of thing; and we might compare it to the growth rings of a tree, which, barring drought, blight, fire and the woodsman's axe, will continue year-to-year to add another layer. Chronological age is used to determine the placement of each layer of social growth. Initial ability, capacity, and rate

of growth are all relegated to roles of secondary consideration. Years and months become *prima facie* evidence for and of growth.

Regular promotion, year by year, implies that non-promotion is so vicious, so unlike situations in life outside the school, that failure of such proportions should never be used. Such a policy makes non-promotion a disciplinary action and casts upon it reflections of imposition from authoritarian sources. Life, as most of us know it, is not a never-ending, never-changing advance from one level of success to another. Some must spend years in reaching a certain level of success while others may traverse the same road in months.

The practice of promoting every child every year denies that *any* normal child can ever benefit by spending an additional year at any level of the educational ladder. It denies further the existence of *any* degree of achievement as a prerequisite to the richer understanding and meaning of the social activities of any group. Such a plan gives every child credit of possessing adequate insight and understanding of the experiences undergone by the group.

Basically, the theory of promotion discussed above is one way of answering a rather knotty problem of both administration and teaching. Schools which follow the "annual-promotion-without-exception" policy have closed the door on the most troublesome spot in the whole field of pupil progress. The problem is still there; the curtain has simply been drawn over it. Such action discourages wholesome and intelligent investigation

who dared to have the faith for such an undertaking, and who was responsible for the initiation and carrying on of such a Herculean project? The records show that it was not the industrial scientists, nor the military leaders, but the academic scientists of America, school men engaged in education. It was Dr. Vannevar Bush, a Cape Cod Yankee of wide experience as Professor of Electrical Engineering, who conceived the idea for the Office of Scientific Research and Development and enlisted President Roosevelt's support for the new organization in June, 1940. One of the objectives of the O.S.R.D. was "to enlist the support of scientific and educational institutions and organizations." We all know how fully this objective was realized. Practically every institution of higher learning in this country responded wholeheartedly to the war effort with its men and laboratories. Sixty-nine different academic institutions were represented on the staff of a single great government laboratory in 1945. Space does not permit naming here the universities and colleges and the contributions of each to the war effort, or to list the scientists whom they provided. But the record of leadership and service established during the last war by those engaged in education both as individuals and as institutions is a glorious one. Admiral Furer wrote to Dr. Bush, "That your group would contribute brilliant ideas and achievements to the war effort was expected, but that you would be so versatile, and that the scientists and the Navy would find themselves so adaptable to each other's way of doing business, was unexpected by many." Bush writes,

"The same group of scientists and engineers who banded themselves together in 1940 stayed together and finished the job. Most of them have now returned to the peacetime tasks which were interrupted, to the extension of knowledge and the training of the next generation." The institutions of higher learning in the United States have proven themselves to be sources of great strength in the waging of wars. Now they must prove themselves to be equally strong and effective in the struggle for world peace.

How different it was with our enemies. German war research in the early years of the war was with few exceptions, confined to the laboratories operated by the armed forces and those of the war industries. Academic scientists were drafted into military service by the thousands and those not drafted were not permitted to do war research. It is thought that the Germans excluded the academic scientists from war research because they did not believe them sufficiently imbued with Nazi doctrines.

Japan had top-flight civilian scientists of great ability, but by American standards her utilization of academic scientists was only 10 percent effective. Instead of placing contracts with universities, the Army and Navy dribbled out funds in small grants-in-aid to individual scientists. The Japanese Army and Navy besides hating each other, distrusted the civilian scientist, especially if he had been educated in America.

II

Second, the teachers of America made the making of the bomb possible. The

atomic bomb was the result of team work on a gigantic scale. Dr. Bush in writing of the scientists and engineers who worked on the bomb stated, "All have the satisfaction of having been members of one of the finest teams of men ever assembled in a great cause." The bomb was the fruit of the most amazing co-operative enterprise in the history of science. Secretary of War Stimson described it as "the greatest achievement of the combined efforts of science, industry, labor and the military in all history." Secrecy was maintained without a Gestapo. Labor volunteered for the work without asking to be told its purpose. Great corporations made available their managerial skill and vast scientific know-how without patent rights or profits. Scientists left their homes and their research associates and disappeared into the thin air of the New Mexico desert.

This great demonstration of team work and of the co-operative spirit did not occur by accident. American teachers have emphasized in their teaching, team work, co-operation and getting along with others for generations just as they are emphasizing them today. The credit for making such a great demonstration of teamwork possible belongs to the teachers of America. As surely as the German teachers in their classrooms made the last war possible, the American teachers in their classrooms made the winning of the war possible.

If the American teachers are to make possible the winning of the peace as they did the winning of the war, then they must work as a great professional team, constantly appreciated and supported by

American parents, as the scientists worked on the bomb and apparently with as much speed.

III

In the third place the recent war proved that democracy works even in so highly a technical project as the atom bomb. You and I can easily recall the years when dictators were highly praised, not in a foreign tongue but in every day American English, for their efficiency, their ability to get things done. Many Americans before the war were open and enthusiastic in their praise of Hitler and just as open in their condemnation of democracy for what they called its ineffective, slow bungling methods and procedures.

But Dr. J. P. Baxter points out that "This amazing success (the atomic bomb) was achieved not by regimentation of science and industry, but by the country where greatest pains had been taken to leave both free to make the most of their creative powers." The making of the atomic bomb was not only a tremendous achievement in the physical sciences, but also a marvelous accomplishment in the field of the social sciences.

Dr. Bush, in writing the story of making the bomb says, "It tells also of something more fundamental even than this diversion of the progress of science into methods of destruction. It shows how men of good will, under stress, can outperform all that dictatorship can bring to bear—as they collaborate effectively, and apply those qualities of character developed only under freedom. It demonstrates that democracy is strong

and virile, and that free men can defend their ideals as ably in a highly complex world as when they left the plow in the furrow to grasp the smoothbore. This is the heartening fact which should give us renewed courage and assurance, even as we face a future in which war must be abolished, and in which that end can be reached only by the resolution, patience, and resourcefulness of a whole people."

Yes, democracy works, of that there can be no doubt in anybody's mind anymore. And most of all, should there be no doubt in the minds of the students in our schools. We should teach democracy with renewed enthusiasm and devotion not only by precept, but also by participation and example, far more effectively than we have been able to do in the past. Apprenticeship as a citizen in a democracy should extend from the kindergarten through the university. This will necessitate changes in many classrooms all the way up the educational ladder.

Again, a teacher cannot be expected to teach and live democracy if he himself is working under a dictatorial administrative set-up. Our school systems all over the Nation need to be studied to see whether or not the teaching and living of democracy is encouraged, discouraged or even prohibited. Every teacher should re-examine his thinking and teaching with regard to democracy.

Democratic concepts when applied to a classroom, to a school system, or the American home do not mean that the children do as they please or that the teachers run the school system. Democracy does not relieve of responsibility those charged with responsibility, nor

the mature for their responsibility for the immature. The school is a training ground for citizenship and the students are apprentices. They have a right to expect and must have instruction and supervision in their civic growth and sometimes have decisions made for them. However, democracy in the school or home does imply the right of discussion and consideration, the right to be heard, and the understanding that decisions will be made only after the group concerned has an opportunity to consider the problem. In teaching and applying democratic principles, the rights, privileges and freedoms should never be separated from their corresponding duties and responsibilities. Democracy and freedom should come to the individual as they do to a nation —at a price.

IV

One of the basic concepts of democracy is equal opportunity for all. To make this concept a reality every child has a right to be taught according to his individual abilities and needs. But overcrowded conditions in our schools today make nothing but a most superficial attempt to consider individual needs of the pupils in our teaching possible in most school systems of this country.

A friend of mine exclaimed the other day, "My child is in a room of 35 pupils," and I replied, "Why that's nothing—our seven year old is in a room of 39 pupils." What does this mean? It means that there are about twice as many children in these rooms as there should be for efficient teaching, for we know that the most effective class

size is an enrollment of eighteen to twenty-two pupils for this grade and that when more than this number are placed in a room, teacher efficiency decreases at a terrible rate. It means that our boy and every other child in that room is getting about half the teacher attention that each should have to make the progress they could be making. The overcrowding is not the teacher's fault. In fact she is an excellent teacher and no doubt realizes the handicap under which she is working more than anybody else. I am sure that we do not have a teacher on our staff who does not realize the handicap of having more students than she can teach most efficiently. The best known private schools advertise the fact that they do not have more than eight pupils in a class. We in the public school would not ask for nor want classes of such small size, but we are saying that children cannot be properly taught in classes of from thirty to fifty. Nor is this crowded condition in the American public schools the fault of the school administrators. I know of no superintendent who would not like to have more money to spend for more classrooms and teachers that our children might have better educational opportunities. The problem of over-crowded classes, with the resulting terrible loss to our children, is a problem that can be solved only by us as parents. I would like to see it made the Number One problem of the P.T.A., both locally and nationally. This is not an insoluble problem for facts and figures are readily available.

Again, Democracy does not make clear just what children and in which states shall be given an education and which

shall be denied this opportunity. Can we boast of our democracy with 5,000,000 American boys and girls of school age who are not in any school? Moreover, can we be safe? Mr. Benjamin Fine of the *New York Times* made this statement while testifying recently before a Congressional Committee. "Democracy without a sound system of free public schools cannot long survive." Now think of this! In this land of equal opportunity; in this nation where nearly every President in its history has declared that general, widespread education, public education, is the very foundation of this nation; in this United States of America which would assume the leadership of the world, there are 5,000,000 boys and girls of school age who are not in school. Can you imagine the outcome? No, nobody can imagine the consequences that face this nation because of the present neglect of these children. The illiteracy, low standards of living, political corruption, delinquency and crime that we must face because of our current neglect of this large number of children cannot be calculated. We do know that they will permeate our whole social and economic order and their future will be a large factor in determining the future of the United States and of the world. Yes, the present condition in public education constitutes a crisis for the American school children and the public must be made to realize this fact. A consideration of this situation should be the chief function of every P.T.A. organization.

Perhaps we can make the picture a little more graphic by putting it this way. If we could assemble these five million boys and girls from every state

who are not in any school the people of this nation would be startled and alarmed. If we could remove every person in the State of California, except those living in Los Angeles, we could replace every man, woman and child living outside the city of Los Angeles with a boy or girl of school age not now in any school.

But someone says we cannot afford to spend more for public education; we can't afford to educate these 5,000,000 children, we can't afford adequate school buildings and the necessary teachers.

My final observation is that the recent war should have taught us that we cannot afford this waste. Our security as a nation depends upon our doing just this. The last war took education off the luxury list forever and placed it at the head of the list of necessities. Soon after the beginning of combat it was realized by our leaders both in and out of military forces, that the outcome was a race between education and defeat. Millions of dollars were spent with a lavish hand on the educational programs in our military organizations. Nobody then said we can't afford it. More money was spent on an illiterate draftee to teach him to read on a fourth grade level than we spend on a child for his education

through the eight grades. Equipment was furnished in unheard of quantities and at undreamed of expense. A friend of mine tells of one Navy laboratory with forty machines each costing \$60,000. Any University would consider itself fortunate to own just one of them.

Now that the war is over how much are we providing for education? We are still spending lavishly for the educational programs in our military forces, but for public education America is spending only 1.5 percent of the national income, while Russia is spending more than 7 percent and Great Britain, that bankrupt empire so dependent upon us, more than twice as much as we. Do we really believe in the education of our children as the sole way of making the future of democracy secure?

The public schools of America are the first line of defense of democracy. The enemies of democracy know they cannot conquer America until they have first conquered or controlled the American teachers and the public schools. Know your schools, protect your schools, actively resent criticism of them, work for them and thus render a real service to the youth and the Nation, and strike a blow for democracy and the security of America.

Whatever mitigates the woes or increases the happiness of others, this is my criterion of goodness; and whatever injures society at large, or any individual in it, this is my measure of iniquity.—ROBERT BURNS.

The Frontier Schoolma'am on Ranch and Homestead

CLARICE WHITTENBURG

ELLIOTT C. LINCOLN has written a bit of verse about "the schoolma'am" who lived "when this land was mostly sagebrush, rattlesnakes an' alkali, with the ranches scattered pretty far apart." He closes with the stanza—

Well, some of them, they married us,
An' others jest plain harried us,—
We ain't decided yet which kind was
best,
But all of 'em wus good fer us,
An' done the best they could fer us;
They sure wus mighty useful
In the winnin' o' the West.¹

Nowhere has the writer been able to find a logical story of the "schoolma'am" Lincoln describes—her origin; the kind of life she led on the ranch or homestead and in the neighborhood school; her contribution to the western frontier. True, there are many isolated bits of information to be gleaned from here and there. Taken altogether, these tiny jigsaw items present an interesting composite picture of the western schoolma'am's role in her chosen community.

Texas is illustrative of the western

states which placed a high value on education for their children but, as in the case of many of its neighbors, in Texas the voice preceded action by many years. The Texas Declaration of Independence, adopted March 2, 1836, stated, as one of its reasons for severing connections with Mexico, that that nation had "failed to establish any public system of education, although possessed of almost boundless resources."² According to Bezzell, "This document is the only one of its kind that ever gave this as a reason for revolution."³

In 1839, the Texas Congress set aside three leagues of public land in each county as school land.⁴ However, the state did not provide public schools for about thirty years. Even places like Houston had very inadequate facilities. When Kezia Payne de Pelchin, pioneer Texas teacher, nurse and social worker, opened a kindergarten in Houston in 1857, hers was one of ten very small schools in that locality. In most of them, "the children huddled together in one small room."⁵

Long before a public school system was organized, the few scattered schools were usually supported by local subscription and taught by itinerant teachers—schoolmasters, rather than schoolma'ams.⁶

During much of the early and middle parts of the nineteenth century, the frontiersmen seemed to concentrate most

¹ Elliott C. Lincoln, *The Ranch (Poems of the West)*, pp. 60-61. (See Appendix for complete poem.)

² William Bennett Bizzell, *Rural Texas*, p. 351.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 352.

⁴ Harold J. Matthews, *Candles By Night*, p. 80.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 83.

⁶ Annie Doom Pickrell, *Pioneer Women in Texas*, p. 282.

Mattie Lloyd Wooten, *Women Tell the Story of the Southwest*, p. 201.

of their efforts on maintaining a mere existence, with little thought of education for the future. Among the more than seventy-five life-sketches of pioneer Texas women, Annie Doom Pickrell makes little mention of the schools which either they or their children attended. Most of her attention is centered on the problems of homemaking.

When Indian depredations were at their worst, many of the ranchmen gathered their families into a close group at a fort for mutual protection. The children of all these families then attended the same school temporarily. Sallie Reynolds Matthews describes such a grouping when thirty families, consisting of 125 persons, banded together at Fort Davis, located on Clear Fork, a tributary of the Brazos River.⁷

During the Civil War, according to Eby, many of the men teachers joined the army, the number of pupils was greatly reduced, and the attendance became irregular. The children were kept at home to assist on the farm or the ranch and in the household duties.⁸

The original western schoolma'am seems to have been the mother of the household who taught her own children at home.⁹

In his autobiography, Bud Cowan tells how his father moved the Cowan family from Texas in 1875 (when Bud

was only six years old) at the same time he took a trail herd north to line-ride them through the winter near Ogallala, Nebraska. His mother taught him, his sister, Ida, and a few other youngsters of the neighborhood that winter.¹⁰

W. S. James says,

I just can remember my first education. Mother says herself that she thought I never would learn my letters unless she could manage to get the alphabet put on the cattle, one letter for each cow, as it was not hard for me to learn the brands. I got many a thump because of my seeming indolence. Strange to say, what Mother had tried for two years to teach me, my first teacher accomplished in one afternoon. I suppose one reason for it was my natural cowardice. I was simply afraid not to. . . .¹¹

When no schools were near, many families which could afford it, after the Civil War, hired a governess.¹² Sometimes a rancher hired a teacher for his own children, then allowed other pupils to attend the school.¹³ At other times, several ranchers built a community schoolhouse.¹⁴

This plan persisted until after the turn of the century, according to Dr. Mody C. Boatright, who says it was a fairly common practice in the neighborhood of San Angelo, and doubtless in other parts of Texas and neighboring states. Dr. Boatright remembers spending his second school year, in 1904, under the tutelage of Miss Pannyé Norman, a girl from Paint Rock, who taught music on the side. A governess by the name of Wade taught in the home of a neighbor at this same time. The following year five families banded together to build a schoolhouse with a cen-

⁷ Sallie Reynolds Matthews, *Interviews*, p. 21.

⁸ Frederick Eby, *The Development of Education in Texas*, p. 151.

⁹ Pickrell, *op. cit.*, pp. 44, 53 and 109.

¹⁰ Bud (Robert Ellsworth) Cowan, *Ranger Rider*, p. 19.

¹¹ W. S. James, *Cow-Boy Life in Texas*, p. 10.

¹² Matthews, *op. cit.*, pp. 104 and 124.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 151.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 186.

tral location, within three miles of each home.¹⁶

Years ago our forefathers spoke of the buffalo as "the vanishing herd." A few years later, the United States Indian was frequently referred to as "the vanishing American." As recently as January, 1947, Gretta Palmer wrote of "Our Vanishing Schoolteachers."¹⁷ And yet, the schoolma'am might well have been classified with the buffalo and the Indian almost as far back as the '70's, according to the account of a certain Dakota pioneer woman. In a "Letter to the Editor," she relates that she began teaching her district school of a few small children in the '70's and was "called back into the work by a shortage of teachers" a few years later.¹⁸

Although many of the western schoolma'ams were local girls, a large number came from other states. Sallie Reynolds Matthews mentions women teachers from Illinois, Kentucky and Wisconsin.¹⁹ Margaret Owen tells of a young Wisconsin woman who "proved up" on a claim of her own after going out to one of the Dakotas for a visit with her brother. She taught the only school her township boasted in 1883 and her pupils were the neighborhood children "who

¹⁶ Mody C. Boatright to Clarice Whittenburg, March 18, 1947.

¹⁷ Gretta Palmer, "Our Vanishing SchoolTeachers," *Cosmopolitan*.

¹⁸ Alice A. Tolleson, "A Pioneer Remembers," *The Nation*, Vol. 156, May 15, 1943, pp. 718-19.

¹⁹ Matthews, *op. cit.*, pp. 104, 106, 124 and 186.

²⁰ Margaret Owen, "Dakota Pioneers," *North American Review*, Vol. 230, August, 1930, p. 205.

²¹ Agnes Morley Cleaveland, *No Life for a Lady*, p. 121.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 122.

blew across the prairie like tumbling weeds."²⁰

The qualifications of the frontier schoolma'am were frequently quite vague.

Agnes Morley Cleaveland writes concerning the situation in the Datil Mountains region of New Mexico around the 1880's.

Those of our neighbors who could not give their children even the disjointed sort of private education which we were given during our early childhood did nevertheless make sporadic efforts to organize schools. There was naturally no public-school system which embraced the remote districts. Even in more thickly settled communities, the schools were sometimes in charge of Mexican teachers whose command of English was so limited that the major part of their teaching was conducted in their native tongue. I recall the tearful report of one little girl who had been reprimanded for spelling *choose* c-h-o-o-s-e. "The teacher said it should be s-h-o-c-s and I don't know yet which word she was trying to have me spell."²¹

The same author writes that when she, herself, returned, in 1890, at the age of sixteen, from Philadelphia to the Morley ranch in New Mexico,

. . . our Datil community decided to have a school. Here at hand was I, a teacher well qualified to take charge for hadn't I been away at school for two consecutive terms? What more could be asked? A diploma, a teacher's certificate? Wholly superfluous. These parents wanted their children to read, write and "figger" and if the teacher could do these things, she could "learn" the children to do them, too.²²

Even though he was a fictitious character, Mr. Taylor (the family man in Wister's *The Virginian*, who was anx-

ious to secure a teacher for his son and the neighborhood children), expressed the sentiments of many men of his day when he said, "Her handwriting ain't like what I've saw. But Bear Creek would not object to that, provided she knows 'rithmetic and George Washington and them kind of things."²²

When the schoolma'am rang her hand-bell promptly at nine o'clock or earlier, the children usually set their tin dinner-pails on the shelf at the back of the room and shuffled to their seats. Perhaps some of them had walked across the fields; others, much farther away, had come on horseback. Sheds for the horses were unknown. Rain or shine, they waited outside while the lessons droned on within the schoolroom walls.

James K. Greer writes,

Girls of the very early pioneer schools invariably were dressed in gingham frocks and voluminous calico sunbonnets and we boys in hickory shirts attached to our breeches by "galluses."²³

The schoolhouse, like the homes in the neighborhood it served, was built from materials that were most accessible. In the timbered areas the walls were of logs and the floors, benches and desks were of the puncheon type.²⁴ A puncheon log was one which had been split in two and placed with the smooth side up. Stone floors, "not too evenly laid,"

(and doubtless stone walls also) could be found in some of the fort schools.²⁵ On the central and northern prairies, sodhouse schoolrooms, either a part of the family home or separate from it, were common.²⁶

Opening exercises varied in accordance with the talents of the teacher or the sentiments of the community. In many schools, the schoolma'am and her pupils lifted their voices in lofty song. Others invariably opened with hymns and a prayer.²⁷

Of course all of the grades were taught. This necessitated a careful juggling of time schedules. Even though the three R's constituted the larger part of the curriculum, four o'clock frequently rolled around with some of the subjects for some of the grades omitted. The skillful teacher had to be adept at passing in and out among her "study groups" while the "reciting group" stalked up the aisle to the recitation bench or back to their seats.

If the grade range of the pupils seems wide, the age range was even wider. Tiny tots sat on benches nearly, if not quite, as high as those occupied by their tall, man-sized, teen-age brothers.

Agnes Morley Cleaveland tells a delightful anecdote about Gus Wheeler, who "topped" her in age by a few months and in stature by almost a foot. Gus wore his .45 to school and was persuaded "with great difficulty" to lay it aside.

"I never go without my gun," Gus told me. "No tellin' when I might need it."

"You won't need it during school hours," I tried to reassure him, but he was unconvinced. "I needed it at the other school,"

²² Owen Wister, *The Virginian*, p. 62.

²³ James K. Greer, *Bois d'Arc to Barbed Wire*, p. 161.

²⁴ Pickrell, *op. cit.*, p. 187; Wooten, *op. cit.*, pp. 198, 201 and 336.

²⁵ Mathews, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

²⁶ Cowan, *loc. cit.*, O. E. Rölvaag, *Giants in the Earth*, pp. 257-58.

²⁷ Mathews, *op. cit.*, pp. 58-59.

he came back at me. "When the teacher tried to make me do something I didn't want to, I shot up through the roof and scairt the liver out of him. He quit teachin' before very long."²²

Eby contrasts sharply the advantages offered by early Texas town and country schools, particularly between 1875 and 1883.²³ The salaries of country teachers were restricted to a set amount although town school boards had no such restrictions. Towns were permitted to vote a local tax of fifty cents on the one-hundred-dollar property valuation in order to keep their schools open ten months, if they wished, but rural communities were not permitted this privilege. On the average, the yearly school term in country communities was about three and one-half months as contrasted with approximately eight months in urban schools. As Eby puts it, "Rural Texas supplied the wealth and the school fund; urban Texas enjoyed the real advantages."²⁴

Naturally the length of term varied in different rural communities. Mrs. Matthews mentions that one of her childhood schools (in 1868 to be exact), was still in session on July 9, but she does not mention when the term began or closed.²⁵

Very little seems to have been writ-

ten about salaries during frontier days. In his rhythmic prose story of the Big Bend country, which he calls *Hills and Horizons*, Mellard speaks of ranch-reared Rosalie Russell, who came to the fictitious Stray Star Ranch to teach the young Rollands for twenty-five dollars a month. The story implies that board also was included. Some teachers probably followed the practice of moving from home to home as described in Rölvag's novel of an early prairie community.²⁶

Mrs. Cleaveland writes of her own teaching, "The parents were kind in the expressions of appreciation for my services. I collected twenty-five dozen eggs in material reward."²⁷

"There were but few schoolbooks among the people," says an early pioneer woman in reminiscent mood. "The teacher made the multiplication tables upon pasteboard. Mother gave her bandbox for the purpose."²⁸

Little is to be found about the actual textbooks used in the frontier schoolhouse. Marquis James mentions the McGuffy readers.²⁹ Dixon Wechter refers to "Noah Webster's blue-backed speller, Jedidiah Morse's geography, and Nicholas Pike's arithmetic."³⁰ Present-day "oldtimers" often speak with a nostalgic sort of tenderness of these and other old textbooks, such as Ray's arithmetic.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century, the mail-order catalogs probably served as a reading textbook for pre-school training in more than one isolated home. Nannie T. Alderson mentions a particular instance. When the Alderson family moved from their Montana ranch home to Miles City in

²² Cleaveland, *op. cit.*, p. 122.

²³ Eby, *op. cit.*, pp. 178-79.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 179.

²⁵ Matthews, *op. cit.*, p. 65.

²⁶ Rudolph Mellard, *Hills and Horizons*, p. 125.

²⁷ Cleaveland, *op. cit.*, p. 126.

²⁸ Wooten, *op. cit.*, p. 243.

²⁹ Marquis James, *The Cherokee Strip*, p. 48.

³⁰ Dixon Wechter, "Instruments of Culture on the Frontier," *Yale Review*, Vol. 36, No. 2, Winter, 1947, p. 244.

1893, their oldest child was nine years of age "and had never had any schooling except what the Montgomery Ward catalog had given her."²⁷ Mrs. Alderson taught her children to make block letters, but the only early reading they did was from this "wish book," as it was called by ranchers and farmers alike. Certainly one can not complain about the lack of motivation because the youngsters used the catalog to select all of their Christmas gifts. It came early in the fall so they were given ample opportunity to make a blissful change of choices as often as they liked till their father left for Chicago with his cattle. While he was in that city, he would go out to the mail-order retail house, buy a cheap packing trunk and patiently fill it with the children's orders.²⁸

The materials for writing were simple in the extreme. There is little doubt that in the earliest frontier schools, fact closely resembled fiction as it described in Rölvaag's *Giants in the Earth*.

Hans Olsa made a large wooden slate for his girl, and gave her the last remaining stub of a carpenter's pencil which he had brought from Norway . . . And now that Sofie had a slate, Per Hansa's boys must have something to write on, too. Their father took the two thickest pieces of log that he had standing behind the stove and whittled each into an object intended to be a writing board; but Ole called his an ox yoke, because it was so heavy to carry around. For pencils they used nails and bits of charcoal . . . But one day when Store-Hans went on an errand to Kjersti's house,

²⁷ Nannie T. Alderson and Helena Huntington Smith, *A Bride Goes West*, p. 186.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 231-32.

²⁹ Rölvaag, *op. cit.*

³⁰ Marquis James, *op. cit.*, p. 49.

she had a present for him—a great bunch of folded paper bags and wrapping paper . . . And in the chest she had found a small piece of pencil that Syvert had hidden there . . . Store-Hans was delighted with the gift, and on this account he was for a while the aristocrat of the school.²⁹

Classroom curriculum emphasis was largely on the three R's. In speaking of the multiplication tables, Marquis James writes of the school he attended in the early 1890's.

I memorized those rapidly and liked to say them. It was like saying a jingle. But Miss Edna didn't let you stop with saying them. She made you "use" them.

"If Eva had three apples and Harry had three apples and Merwyn had three apples on one desk, how many apples would be on the desk?"

I would stand utterly perplexed while feet began to shuffle and hands go up about me.

"Three times three are what?" Miss Edna would ask.

After considering to myself from three times one I would be able to answer: "Three times three are nine."

"That is right, there are nine apples. You know that now, Markey?"

"Yes, ma'am," I would say, glad to slide into my seat.

I didn't know it, of course. I was talking about numbers and Miss Edna was talking about apples.³⁰

While the emphasis was chiefly upon the three R's, other subjects, such as geography and physiology, were not entirely overlooked. An anecdote by Agnes Morley Cleaveland, who taught her home school in 1890, illustrates this point.

"We will now have our lesson in geography," I announced in my very best pedagogical manner. "Lawrence, will you tell me what a volcano is?"

Lawrence was bright. I always expected the right answer from Lawrence.

"It's when a mountain busts."

I marked him 100, and put the next question to fourteen-year-old Elva.

"Elva, will you define an island?"

Elva shook her head in defeat. I coached her along.

"Why, Elva, didn't you ever see some land in the middle of a lake or river?"

"How could I," Elva shot back, "when I ain't never seen no lake nor river?"

The geography lesson finished, we proceeded to the lesson in physiology. The textbook had been supplied by my mother. It dealt principally with the effects of alcohol and nicotine on the human system. "One drop of nicotine on the end of a cat's tongue . . ."

I asked young Joe about it.

"Taint so," he informed me promptly. "When my Aunt Minnie chaws terbaccier, she swallers it. If it'd kill cats, it'd kill Aunt Minnie. I don't believe all that book says."⁴¹

In many frontier communities, it was not unusual for the children, particularly the boys, to be kept out of school frequently for work at home. T. D. Lyons says it was in this way that he learned about "feed and horses and poker."⁴²

Out on the playground, games were not startlingly different from those which school children play today. Marquis James mentions tag, hide-and-seek, prisoner's base and pom-pom-pull-away.⁴³ "I bought marbles which big boys stole," he goes on to say, "or confiscated under the pretext of finding

them. Losers, weepers; finders, keepers."⁴⁴

Punishments were many and varied. James Greer lists as standard equipment "the dunce stool" and "a goodly supply of stout switches in the corner," along with the high pine desks of his era, made and hauled to school by the parents.⁴⁵

Miss Edna McKenzie had three kinds of punishment, according to Marquis James . . . , "standing in the corner, staying after school, and switching." Miss Edna, it seems, kept a collection of willow switches behind the stove. "Once," says Marquis, "Miss Edna wore out two switches on Buck George."⁴⁶

This enterprising teacher planned new forms of punishment for boys who could "take a switching without whimpering" but who "disliked penmanship." She stopped "lickings" and substituted what she considered a more effective penalty. As her erstwhile pupil puts it,

For breaking rules she would require me to go to the blackboard and write "disobedient" twenty-five times in five neat columns of five words each:

Dis-o-be-di-ent

Dis-o-be-di-ent

Dis-o-be-di-ent

Dis-o-be-di-ent

Dis-o-be-di-ent

If a letter was not roundly and properly formed, I had to do the word over.⁴⁷

Both the early schoolmaster of the East and the frontier schoolma'am of the West might be called upon to face situations which scarcely came under the head of teaching a mastery of the three

⁴¹ Cleveland, *op. cit.*, pp. 123-24.

⁴² T. D. Lyons, "Education in Dakota," *Commonweal*, Vol. 33, March 21, 1941, pp. 536-37.

⁴³ Marquis James, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*

⁴⁵ Greer, *loc. cit.*

⁴⁶ Marquis James, *op. cit.*, p. 63.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 63-64.

R's. Both of the incidents cited here are unusual and spectacular but they serve to illustrate the point.

Dixon Wecter tells the story of "the first master of a log-cabin school at Lexington, Kentucky," who "began one day's tasks by strangling with his bare hands a wildcat in the schoolroom."⁴⁴

Perhaps no less dramatic and certainly much more tragic, is the story told by T. D. Lyons of a blizzard in the 1880's which took its toll of human life at Redstone in the prairies of Dakota Territory.

The citizens committee, by keeping hold of a clothesline and guiding on it, brought the children, five at a time, from the school house. But out in the country districts, there was grim tragedy. Many of the school teachers were Eastern girls unaccustomed to the ways of the blizzard. They discounted as nothing more than "tall talk" the pioneer stories of earlier storms.

In a spirit of heroic, but mistaken, judgment, they took their little flocks with them out of the school house in an effort to take them home. The next day when the blizzard abated, more than a hundred tiny forms of frozen school children were found, and in most cases the teachers perished with them. . . . For many days, sad processions were seen, carrying tiny coffins out for burial in the frozen earth.⁴⁵

It is difficult today—when the members of a single family are likely to seek enjoyment for an evening in separate and diverse locations—to picture the frontier school house as the focal point

of most community activities. But such it was!

Not only did the western school-ma'am attend ranch dances like that in which "the Virginian" of Wyoming and his friend, Lin McLean, "swapped" the babies,⁴⁶ but she often found herself serving as hostess at a dance held in the room in which she taught by day.

Mary Kidder Rak describes such a dance in Arizona.⁴⁷ A fiddler, and perhaps a guitar-player, was stationed beside the desk on the teacher's platform. Tin reflectors threw a feeble light on the dancers and moths fluttered about the lamps. The babies were penned into corrals of loosened desks.

Nannie T. Alderson mentions sprinkling corn meal on the rough floors to make them slippery.⁴⁸

Mrs. Rak writes,

In the old horse-and-buggy days, people came from far and near; no distance seemed too great for the cowboys to ride to a dance. People rode or drove all of one day, danced all night, and went home in the morning, weary and happy.⁴⁹

Agnes Morley Cleaveland says, of the dances in her area of New Mexico,

I have known people to ride forty miles on horseback to attend a dance. I myself have gone as far as twenty-five, with my party dress in a flour sack tied to my saddle. Yes, of course it was wrinkled, but it was clean. . . .

. . . There were at least four or five "gents" to every "lady." These latter ranged in age from Grandmother to little pig-tailed Susie; anything feminine would do as a partner. No wallflowers in those days!

"Five, six, seven, and eight," the master of ceremonies would bellow, "get your partners and don't let good music go to waste. . . ."

⁴⁴ Wecter, *loc. cit.*

⁴⁵ Lyons, "Dakota Blizzard," *Commonweal*, Vol. 33, December 27, 1940, pp. 252-53.

⁴⁶ Wister, *op. cit.*, pp. 121-22.

⁴⁷ Mary Kidder Rak, *A Cowman's Wife*, p. 286.

⁴⁸ Alderson, *op. cit.*, p. 124.

⁴⁹ Rak, *loc. cit.*

. . . Midnight supper consisted of coffee and cake. Every woman brought a cake, whether she came by wagon or horseback. Even when it is packed in a tin bucket, it is no mean achievement to keep a layer cake intact for mile after mile on horseback.⁶⁴

Ross Santee gives a description of a *bailie* at a nester school house in Arizona so vivid that one forgets it is fiction rather than autobiography. There were forty cowboys present, most of them wearing silk neckerchiefs and all of them wearing boots carefully greased with "taller." All the boys from one outfit rode in together and tied or hobbled their horses in a group. Their common enemy, the miners, also turned out in some force. Several jugs were cached out in the brush and the evening closed with a fight between the cowboys and the miners.⁶⁵

It was common practice, in early frontier days, to use the local school house as the community church.⁶⁶ "We had a Sunday School there, too," Margaret Owen quotes a Dakota pioneer woman as saying, "and on the occasional Sundays when a traveling preacher would come out from the settlement, every homesteader for miles around would crowd into the tiny room."⁶⁷ James K. Greer lists "going to preaching" as one of the equivalents to social recreation on the frontier, even though, as he says, "Many persons would not consider going to church a social diversion."⁶⁸ Greer

states that the church and school in Texas did not go their separate ways until after the organization of independent school districts.⁶⁹ He names Sunday School picnics and box suppers as other common uses to which the rural school was put.⁷⁰ In occasional fiddlers contests, the fiddlers vied with one another in playing "Dan Tucker," "The Brown Jug" and "The Arkansas Traveler."

If a schoolma'am from the East became engaged to a cowboy in the West, she might meet with wholehearted family opposition when she returned to her distant home for a visit and announced her plans. Not all families took the tolerant attitude of Molly Wood's great-aunt who remarked, after scanning Molly's picture of the Virginian "in all his cowboy trappings—the leather chaps, the belt and pistol, and in his hand a coil of rope"—"I suppose there are days when he does not kill people."⁷¹

It seems impossible to make a truly definitive study of the frontier schoolma'am in fact and fiction. She is not such a vividly colorful, legendary character as one finds in stories of the frontier cowboy. She followed civilization quietly, without fanfare, content to teach the young in a fashion that would seem woefully inadequate, even when judged by the lowest standards of emergency teaching today. And yet—to re-quote Elliott C. Lincoln—she "sure was mighty useful in the winnin' o' the West." (See page 89.)

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⁶⁵ Ross Santee, *Cowboy*, pp. 204-5.

⁶⁶ Greer, *op. cit.*, p. 357; Owen, *op. cit.*, p. 205; Pickrell, *op. cit.*, pp. 257-58.

⁶⁷ Owen, *loc. cit.*

⁶⁸ Greer, *loc. cit.*

⁶⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 360.

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APPENDIX

The Schoolma'am

Almost every sort o' lady has been written up in rhyme,
 Some wus beautiful an' good, an' some wus—not.
 But I never heard no poet feller make his jew's-harp chime
 Fer a schoolma'am, so I guess I'll take a shot.

When this land wus mostly sagebrush, rattlesnakes, an' alkali,
 With the ranches scattered pretty far apart,
 Then the little distric' schoolma'am sorter cocked her knowin' eye,
 Put a clean shirt in her grip, an' made a start.

First she had us build a schoolhouse, an' we set it up on skids
 'Cause our population shifted overnight,
 Then she combed the country careful fer the families with kids,
 And she cinched 'em with a contract, good an' tight.

Say, she kep' them kids a-learnin' I never missed a single day,
 Did her fifteen mile o' ridin', rain or shine,
 On a limpin', bony cayuse that a sheep-man give away;
 You could hear her bell a-ringin' prompt at nine.

Then the single fellers got to washin' way behin' their ears,
 An' a slickin' up their heads, all nice an' wet.
 An' them that couldn't git along without the cup that cheers
 Started hittin' up the *sau de violet*.

Well, some of them, they married us, an' others jest plain harried us,—
 We ain't decided yet which kind wus best.
 But all of 'em wus good fer us, an' done the best they could fer us;
 They sure was mighty useful in the winnin' o' the West.

Elliott C. Lincoln, *The Ranch (Poems of the West)*, New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924,
 pp. 60-61.

You can tie a broken cord together but there will be a knot in it.
—Foreign proverb

Boyhood Reverie

GERHARD FRIEDRICH

There was the river! winding through a screen
Of oaks and pine-trees aged and hung with moss;
A broad, black ribbon hemmed in by the green
Of pleasant woods, and overhead the gloss

Of summer's brightest day. The boat was gay;
And as we skirted each successive bend,
There was another stretch, a new display
Of trees and sunlit waters without end.

At dusk we anchored, shared the evening meal,
And drifted homeward with the changing tide.
The air was gently cool. I still can feel
The forest posting guards on every side.

We lay on deck, and wished that hearts could fly,
And watched the stars blaze trails across the sky.

Philosophy in Anecdotes

HANS MARGOLIUS

A TEACHER of philosophy once took great pains to introduce his pupils into the mysteries of logic. He just was trying to explain to them the laws of a logical conclusion, and he demonstrated the first principle of the conclusion in this way: "All animals have sensations. The worm is an animal. Therefore the worm has sensations."— "Look here," said a mocking student, "The donkey has ears. You have ears. Therefore you are a donkey."— That was of course not a valid conclusion, but the student had his laughing fellows on his side.

At all times people made fun of philosophers. And the philosophers themselves have in their turn ridiculed their own colleagues, their peculiarities, and their extravagances.

John Elof Boodin tells of William James.* We "had been listening to a noted preacher. We were profoundly impressed by his appeal that worthiness of immortality, was the important thing rather than the fact of immortality. We walked home with William James, and he invited us into his study. One of us grew very eloquent in defense of this abstract worthiness of immortality. James fastened upon us his benignant smile and said: 'which would you rather: to be worthy of a fine beautiful

wife or have one?' We admitted, we would rather have the 'fine beautiful wife,' unworthy though we might be."

Of course, it is not always the philosopher who is ridiculed by the philosopher. More often it is just the non-philosopher who is subject to the laughter of the mocking philosopher.

When Voltaire moved to Ferney, this little place became the intellectual capital of the world. Every savant, every enlightened ruler came to pay his respects to the famous Frenchman. Finally the entertaining of such a stream of guests became too expensive even for Voltaire. He complained that he became hotel keeper for Europe. When an acquaintance of his announced his intention to stay for about six weeks at Ferney, Voltaire answered him: "Do you know the difference between you and Don Quixote?"—Don Quixote mistook a tavern for a castle. And you mistake my castle for a tavern."—Whereupon the intended visit was considerably shortened.

One day a man came to Emerson. "Mr. Emerson," he cried, "do you know that tonight the world is coming to an end?" "I'm glad to hear it," smiled Emerson, "man will get along better without it."

Lessing's friends warned him that he too often supported men who do not deserve it. Not every man in need deserves help, they said. "My goodness," replied Lessing, "how much would we have, if

EDITOR'S NOTE: This article was translated by Recha Jaszi and Sarah Cleghorn.

* William James As I Knew Him. The Personalist. Volume XXIII, No. 3, Summer 1942, p. 286.

we should get only what we deserve!"

Moses Mendelssohn was once ordered into the presence of Frederick the Great. The king wanted to have some fun with him. He took a piece of paper and wrote down the following sentence. "Mendelssohn is one ass." And he signed this sentence: Frederick II. Then he handed the sheet to the philosopher and asked him to read it aloud. Mendelssohn looked at the text, grinned a little and read slowly and thoughtfully: "Mendelssohn is *one* ass, Frederick the *second*." The king laughed and admitted being licked by the wit of Mendelssohn.

The philosopher's wit does not halt before a King's throne; more than that, sometimes it aims even against the whole feminine sex.

"Ladies are not admitted to heaven," Kant once said. "It is told that there was a silence of $\frac{1}{2}$ hour in heaven. That would be scarcely possible with ladies present." However, otherwise Kant did not think badly of women. He was an enemy of all learned women, and believed that their proper field should be the home, entertaining and cooking. He enjoyed discussing with them the art of the cuisine. And if a dish was very much to his taste he inquired about the recipe, so that one of his friends laughingly said, that Kant might write now—as a successor of his *Critique of Pure Reason*—a *Critique of the Art of Cooking*. But Kant was not merely discussing delicious meals with the ladies. He was quite susceptible to feminine beauty. He even frequently tried to marry off his friends, though he himself remained a bachelor.

Borowski, his contemporary biogra-

pher, writes: "I have known two females who successively have attracted Kant's heart and affection. Of course he was no longer the young man who would have chosen and decided in a hurry. His proposals would not have been rejected, but he acted too cautiously and he waited too long. And so one of the ladies moved to a distant province, and the other became the wife of an honest man, who, quicker than Kant, knew what he wanted and got it."

This story is very significant for Kant's character. If we listen wisely to such amusing, serious and even so moving a story, we learn not only something about the psychology of philosophers, but about the essence of philosophy itself.

Like Kant also Nietzsche remained a bachelor. He even believed that philosophers should not marry. "Which great philosopher," he once said, "has ever married? Heraklitus, Plato, Descartes, Spinoza, Leibniz, Kant, Schopenhauer certainly did not. A married philosopher belongs in a comedy, that is my thesis. And that exception, the malicious Socrates, who married Xantippe—oh irony of fate—he did it, just to demonstrate my thesis." But even Nietzsche had his marriage plans at times. And Socrates himself, despite Nietzsche, used to advise his pupils to marry by all means. "If you get a good wife," he said, "you will be happy, and if you get a bad one you will become a philosopher, and that is good for everyone."

Schopenhauer was very much against women, in theory. But in practice he too was more tolerant. The sculptress Elisabeth Ney came in 1859 to Frankfurt

in order to make his portrait bust. He found the girl of twenty-four "very pretty and incredibly amiable," and he told a friend about her: "She is working the whole day long at my place. When I come home from dinner, we drink coffee together, sitting side by side on the sofa. Then I feel really as if I were married." And the friend describes how gleefully he rubbed his hands.

Though he always spoke deprecatingly about marriage, he said once, referring to it: "Whether one marries or not—it comes to nothing."

The author of the *World as Will and Idea* was surely not inclined to pity himself. And yet there is a sound of sorrow in his words. In fact there is often a certain sadness in the attitude of philosophers toward women. Nietzsche is quite right; not many philosophers were married.

Pythagoras said once: "Philosophers come into the festival of life as mere spectators and not to compete in contests or to carry on business." Often they stand beside or above, they do not go into the arena of life. A peculiar remoteness from life, a certain distance is characteristic of their nature. This is why they are shy, undecided and incapable of coping with life. And such qualities speak of course against marriage."

But if there were many philosophers who were not married there were a few who were. Nietzsche was not completely right. Aristotle, Grotius, Lessing, Mendelssohn, Goethe, Fichte, Emerson, and James were married and there is sufficient evidence that they were happy husbands. Remoteness from life which has

caused many philosophers to remain single, on the other hand has given the philosopher a certain privilege. Because he is not a man of action he is most of the time poor in goods and gifts of fortune. Therefore he is more grateful than others for whatever happiness life grants him. If he ever wins the affection of a woman, he appreciates this happiness more than others. And this is the reason why he receives more devotion than others.

Hipparchia, a young Greek woman was very much attracted by the teaching of the cynics. But Crates, one of them, interested her personally so much that she remained cool to the courtship of other suitors. Her parents tried their best to talk her out of what they considered an unwise attachment, and as they were unsuccessful they finally begged him to dissuade her from her intention to marry him. Crates went to Hipparchia and put all his possessions which he had carried with him, at her feet. "Here is your bridegroom. That is all I own. Make now your decision," he said. Firm in her will she married Crates, dressed as poorly as he did and lived with him in the open, under the free sky.

When in 1620 Hugo Grotius was condemned to life imprisonment his wife followed him voluntarily into the prison, after she had fought for this privilege with all her power. She even succeeded in helping him escape, hidden in a box of books, while she remained imprisoned, until—much later—she was given freedom also.

It is not only in marriage that the philosopher obtains especial happiness.

His holding life at arm's length—so characteristic of him—gives him strength to bear the humdrum of the everyday. It makes him poised and serene while others become angry and violently disturbed.

When Spinoza once heard that a man who owed him 200 florins had gone bankrupt, he said smilingly: "Well, I have to economize now. How inexpensively one can buy equanimity!"

One day Albert Schweitzer was working in the surroundings of the hospital founded by him for the natives in Lambaréne in Africa. The rains were coming, and timber had to be brought under cover. Suddenly Schweitzer caught sight of a native in a white suit sitting by a patient whom he had come to visit. "Hullo! friend," he called out, "won't you lend us a hand?"—"I am an intellectual and don't drag wood about," came the answer. "You're lucky," Schweitzer replied; "I too wanted to become an intellectual, but I didn't succeed."

Together with such serenity goes another important factor of the philosopher's attitude. It is his steady devotion to his work. Accusations and persecutions affect him little; wealth and luxury, which corrupt so many others, have no attraction, as a rule, for him.

When Thomas Jefferson ran for President, his opponents warned the women of America, in the event of his election to hide their Bibles in their gardens, or he would confiscate them and burn them "in a general holocaust of infidelity." Jefferson made no effort to reply to the avalanche of these accusations. He was quietly sitting at home

compiling a little book on the Morals of Jesus. "It is a common human failing," he said, "to transfer to the person the hatred felt for his political opinions."

When Spinoza heard that false friends had denounced him to the authorities, he replied quietly: "It is not the first time that one has to pay dearly for truth. Calumny will not succeed in making me desert that cause."

Even more beautifully he expressed this devotion to his work when in 1673 the elector of the Palatinate offered a chair at the University of Heidelberg to this poor Jew. Spinoza thought it over for a while but finally refused the honor in order to preserve his independence and to devote his entire strength to his work.

When George Santayana made his home in Rome, he took a modest suite in a hotel. When his friends suggested that he buy himself a home, he replied: "Possessions enslave a man."

We are told by one of Socrates' pupils that Socrates used to look at the display of goods and fineries on the market with complete indifference. "How numerous are the things," he said, "which I do not desire."

Remoteness from life endows the philosopher also with the virtue of tolerance. Those who stand and fight in the midst of life can often see only their own goal, their own viewpoints. They often ignore the value of other goals in order to maintain their own cause. To the philosopher who is a spectator and not an actor is granted the gift to see the diversity of all kinds of purposes and attitudes. He perceives

the significance of individual forms of life side by side, and he understands their special value.

In 1789 the Russian historian, Karamzin, paid a visit to Kant. In the course of their conversation they mentioned Kant's opponents and enemies. "You will meet them," said Kant, "and you will see that they are rather good fellows."

Spinoza's landlady asked him one day whether in his opinion her religion might not close the doors of heaven to her. "Your religion is good," answered Spinoza, "you need not look to another. If you lead a good and devout life you will be saved."

In his remoteness from life, the philosopher of course feels that he is different from others and in this fact he takes a certain pride.

Voltaire, whose real name was Arouet, was once affronted by an impertinent courtier: "What is your name, Arouet or Voltaire?" "I do not bear a great name," Voltaire replied, "but I do honor to mine."

Schopenhauer in Frankfurt used to take his evening meals in the Hotel "Englischer Hof." Before starting to eat he would place a gold coin on the table and after finishing his meal he would put it back into his pocket. It must have been an irritated waiter who asked for the reason of this strange behaviour. Schopenhauer answered that he had taken a vow to throw the gold coin into the poorbox as soon as the officers present in the diningroom would talk about things other than women, dogs and horses. Such a change of topic never took place, the philosopher in later years

told his friends, and the poor of Frankfurt had to go without the gold coin.

At home Spinoza wore a shabby cotton coat. A distinguished member of the city council, visiting him, reproached him for doing so and offered to present him with a new housecoat. Spinoza thanked him for the good intention but declined, saying: "It is not a good thing, when the bag is better than the meat in it."

Though Spinoza refused to wear an elegant coat at home, he never would have appeared publicly in shabby clothes. He always looked respectable when leaving his house. And that is after all only the other side of the same pride. It is not necessary, thinks the sage, to enhance one's personality by elegant clothes, nor is it wise to attract attention by appearing in rags and tatters.

In his esteem for good clothes Kant went much farther than Spinoza. His biographer tells us how Kant impressed on his listeners the maxim that one never should wear outmoded clothes; that it is everybody's duty to avoid making an unpleasant or extravagant impression. He called it a "maxim one should strictly adhere to," to match coat and waistcoat according to the color scheme of flowers. Nature, he said, never produces anything which does not please the eyes. The colors which nature arranges side by side always harmonize completely. So for instance a brown coat should have a yellow waistcoat as companion, as the good example of the French cowslip teaches us.

Of course not all philosophers have been so particular. It is known that Hegel entered his classroom at the Uni-

versity one day with only one boot on. The other one he had unknowingly lost in the mud of the streets.

This is a proof of the famous absent-mindedness of philosophers. Remote-ness from life makes them strangers in the world and somewhat helpless about its daily duties.

Whereas Hegel seemed not a bit concerned about his stocking foot, Kant usually showed more exactness and fore-sight than necessary. He kept his bed-room dark during summer and winter, day and night. The shutters were closed because he believed that bedbugs lived and propagated by light only. When he left his bedroom in the dark, he used a rope between bed and door as a safe guide when he returned.

Such fussiness must have made his daily life difficult. And yet the careful habits of thought such men acquire often give the philosopher unusual vigor of expression and action in certain situations where prudence and presence of mind are at a premium. One afternoon during the American War of Independence Kant took a walk in a park where he met an acquaintance, in the company of gentlemen previously unknown to him. They stopped and discussed current events, and Kant upheld stoutly the cause of the Americans. With great warmth he spoke of its justice and he accused England bitterly. One of the men present suddenly confronted the philosopher, declared himself an Englishman, saying he considered himself and his nation insulted by Kant's utterances. He then challenged Kant to a duel. Not for one moment did the angry man disturb Kant's composure.

He went on to express opinions and convictions according to which every man should judge current events as a citizen of the world notwithstanding his love for his own country. Mr. Green, this was the Englishman's name, listened in amazement to Kant's high-minded ideas and being a noble spirit himself by nature, he was finally con-vinced that Kant was right. He asked to be forgiven for his hot temper. He stretched out his hand with great cordiality and not only accompanied the philosopher home but invited Kant to visit him. In this way began one of the most intimate friendships of Kant's life.

There is a counterpart to this modera-tion and peace of mind which Kant ex-ercised. It is the capacity of reflection and sympathy—characteristic traits of a philosopher.

Pestalozzi was sometimes sadly dis-gusted with his surroundings. "But," so he tells us, "a little child on my knees could help me to overcome my anger. When I looked into the child's eyes I found Heaven mirrored in it and my eyes smiled like his. Again I felt the joy of being alive, again I was in af-fectionate touch with the world."

And Kant tells us a similar story: "Once I held a swallow in my hands. I looked into his eyes and I felt as if I were looking into heaven."

This highest degree of reflective thought results from the philosopher's highly cultivated faculties of perception and contemplation. Anaxagoras was once asked what he thought was the reason why he was born into the world. "In order to observe the sun, the moon

and sky," he answered. And Descartes, the founder of modern philosophy, wrote: "For nine years I did nothing but wander here and there. I preferred being a spectator to being an actor in the world."

When in 1830 the first news of the July Revolution in France reached Weimar, everybody was of course excited. Eckermann, the secretary of Goethe, was received by the great man with the words: "What do you say to this event? The volcano exploded! ! ! All is in flames." "Yes," answered Eckermann, "but what else could we expect from such conditions than the expulsion of the royal family?" "But you misunderstand me," said Goethe. "I do not mean those people. I am talking about the fight which took place in the French Academy between Cuvier and St. Hilaire. It is of greatest importance. For fifty years have I worked on the problem of the skull-bone 'intermaxillare,' and I was ignored. Now St. Hilaire is on my side. I am jubilant about the victory of a cause I have devoted my life to."

One beautiful noon in February some young friends enticed the Spanish philosopher, Ortega y Gasset, into leaving his study and going to a golf course. One of them asked him: "How can you live without sun! Day after day shut up in your study?"—It is possible," he replied, "because I really do not live."—"What are you doing then?"—"I am only present while others live."—"But that is martyrdom."—"Yes, it is. To be a martyr means to be a witness. I am a witness of the everlasting miracle: world and man. It's not a fate to scorn. Unless there is somebody to witness the exist-

ence of the outside world, the world does not exist."

The philosopher is present while others live, witness of world and life. Of course, the philosopher cannot afford to be merely a witness all the time. Even he must sometimes participate in life. He too must eat. But as far as he is a philosopher his business is not to act, but to observe.

John Locke tells us in his "*Essay Concerning Human Understanding*," how he came to write this work. Several friends of his were once discussing the principles of ethics and revealed religion without finding a solution to their problem. It suddenly occurred to Locke that they were on the wrong track. He thought that before entering such discussions one should investigate the faculties of the human mind. And he decided to write the essay which first introduced the theory of human knowledge into the history of philosophy.

At the turn of the 16th century there lived in Goerlitz in Silesia the cobbler-philosopher and mystic Jacob Boehme. All his thought was centered on the cause and the source of evil. He was incessantly haunted by the question, "How could evil have come into this world, since the everlasting goodness of God could not possibly have created it?" One day he watched the sunbeams in his cobbler's ball of pewter. And suddenly he had the answer to his question: As the sun can reflect itself only in a dark medium, so God can reveal himself best in a negative principle. Evil must be that God may be good. Goodness derives its creative energy from evil.

Let us think over these two stories.

Men discuss questions of ethics and religions. The philosopher does not take part in the argument. As observer he finds out the reason for the failing of the discussion. He realizes what is needed first of all: the investigation of the human mind and its abilities.

For years had the cobbler of Goerlitz looked at his pewterball. Suddenly the ball ceased to be a cobbler's tool. The cobbler was lost in the philosopher. He paused, his hands rested. In amazement he watched the sun's reflection in the ball, and he understood that Light and Good can be only visible in Darkness and Evil.

Aristotle called Amazement the beginning of philosophy. One must pause, one must look up in amazement: then the miracle of life reveals itself.

The capacity to be amazed again and again over things and events of life makes the philosopher. It is this capacity for amazement which makes him so of-

ten seem naive and childlike.

Borowski, speaking of Kant, tell us: "Only yesterday the word, childlikeness, slipped from my tongue, and my friend Schaeffner who certainly knows our sage agreed that it expresses the whole Kant. Of course, it is not the author of philosophical theories alone, who has the capacity for amazement, the faculty of observation and contemplation. He may have it to a higher degree, he may be the one who can make it productive. But everyone of us becomes sometimes an observer of life, looking up in amazement at the miracle of world and man. Sometimes everyone of us becomes a philosopher, more or less, just as everyone, more or less, stays a child throughout his life."

We intended to tell some stories about philosophers, but you will find, that, in a certain sense, they are just stories about Everyman, stories about Everyman at his best.

The only limit to our realization of tomorrow will be our doubts of of today. Let us move forward.—FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

The Little Schoolhouse

LILLA RACHEL PALMER

LAST SUMMER I visited the community where I was born, and where as a child, at the beginning of the century, I attended a little one room rural school. This school was organized before 1860, and now after eighty-eight years of service its door was to be closed. No school would be there during 1947-48—not for lack of teachers, or good pay—but for lack of pupils. And this in a fair, if not the best, farming community in Southern Iowa. I was saddened by this, for although I had been away from the community since high school days and had long since been graduated from high school and from two universities and had received two degrees that little school house had always represented something special to me. It represented something not easily replaced in the American way of life, and it seems that unless we can think and act fast—with its going and with others like it going—something will be gone forever.

I know this school lacked pupils because other schools with large physical equipment apparently have more to offer, and this has drawn people with children to them. The big schools should have more to offer, but they'll have to have a lot if they can out-and-out do the little school I knew.

In our little school back there, the teacher, the student body, and the playground were the hubs around which we revolved. In the schoolroom with the teacher as the leader, we set about to

learn truth and values just as the pupils of Socrates and Plato had done several hundred years before us, and just as the students are doing today, I hope. We had at our disposal some of the same materials that they had and some that they did not have, and we were without some of the materials available today. But among other things we had each other, and we made use of this. We had the mobile child, the tenant child, the well established child, whose ancestors had come over like as not on the *Mayflower*, and the immigrant child. In this we had an advantage, that many schools do not have, in that, we were so few in number that we needed the new comers, and we always had time and inclination to take them in and make them one of us. From them we learned much. And they in turn learned from us. And we became friends. We did not necessarily become alike; we did not adopt the same social or religious feelings; but we did learn to live in peace with each other, and enjoy our associations together. And always, as is the case in such relations, our lives were enriched. We had not only our own experiences, creeds, and customs to reflect upon, but those of our new associates as well, and they had ours. In this way we could not but help learn that there are two sides to the world.

We were so anxious to get along together we had few juvenile jealousies; few cliques were formed, and we were

seldom cruel to each other without real cause. I remember one fellow who boasted and bragged and tried in every way to break up our games unless he could be the leader. He could not lead: we had tried him on that, so we had to teach him a lesson. We invited him to be the chief and only visitor to what we called "The Ladies Aid Society." He should have known better than accept the role, but evidently he was willing to pay any price for the spotlight—he attended time and again before he was cured. The rest of us who were not to be a chief visitor knelt in two rows facing each other and we were armed with pins in each hand. He was asked to walk between us as the big-shot-visitor at our meeting, and as he did so we jabbed him with our pins. He leaped high into the air and tried many stunts to outwit us, but at length, when he found that he could not, he set in to learn other techniques of approaching and establishing friendships worthy of a civilized individual.

If a child was a laggard we put him on the end of the line when we played whip cracker and swung him into action. He soon learned to do some of the whipping himself after a fall or two. And then we had another game to teach the gullible and naive that life is not always as simple as it looks. We took them snipe hunting. That game never hurt anyone, but not one of our initiates held the snipe bag more than once.

Discipline inside the school room was solved easily as a matter of reciprocity. It moulded our characters in an indirect and subtle way more than did that on the playground. We learned to get

along, for local girls taught the school—relatives of some of us, almost always, and if not, then, a daughter of some highly respected family in the community. None of us would incur disfavor at any term when our relative taught that could be retroactive at the next term when relatives of the others taught, or when a favorite daughter taught whose father could forbid us use of his coasting hills or the ice pond in winter, or even worse yet, refuse to exchange heavy work with our father and the work fell on us.

We were lonely and wanted to be together in numbers, consequently we accepted the fact that going to school, which brought us together, was work, as we were told, and not play, and we made the most of it. We learned our lessons together. We read our books together, not once, not twice, but many times. We learned to read, to figure, and to write. We learned historical facts; we learned geographical facts. And in all of this we arrived at the truth and values of life, or thought we did. We cherished what we had. Not many ideologies reached us, or if they did died out for want of a seeding bed. Our nerves were never shattered or exhausted by attempts to keep up with a pace beyond our ability. We had no split personalities. We may have been guinea pigs, but we did not know it. We were what we were, because we were where we were, and that was all there was to it. In our small community we could not be insincere or superficial and get away with it, therefore we grew up with some degree of responsibility toward each other.

We had little time for play, but here

again as with our studies, we made great use of what we had and pursued our recreation with vigor. School began at nine in the morning, and ended at four in the afternoon for five days a week for seven months of the year. Two recess periods of fifteen minutes each and the remainder of the lunch hour were ours. This time we spent playing games, skating, coasting, and playing ball.

I think that we learned directly from the games the value of each other to each other. We learned that it takes human souls to make life worth living. There must be some degree of happiness and comfort in life to make it endurable. If we wanted to be together, and we knew that we did, then we must devise a system whereby life together was endurable among us. Our games, in general, must be not only enjoyable but pleasurable, and they were. We saw to that.

These games ran the gamut from big games of Andy-Over to Base-ball to Shinny on the ice pond and to coasting on the hills on our sleds. We played Black-Man, Steel Sticks, Flying Dutchman, Whip Cracker, Drop the Handkerchief, and London Bridge when we could not play the big games. And on rainy days we played Blindfold, Grunt,

I Spy the Thimble, Mumble Peg, Pass the Button, and Poor Puss in the house.

I wish that we could have had more books and more equipment. We could have learned a great deal more than we did. But as it was we got a lot out of life from our meager materials. And those same values are still there to be gotten by children in schools today and by every oncoming generation. And it does not take a large outlay in buildings and physical surroundings to have this.

That such a small school can not keep its door open with the fast changes in life's pattern where great numbers of people go elsewhere and must be crowded together is to be lamented because in addition to that making the most of what we had we also had the feeling that there was time for things.

Faced with quick means of transportation, quick travel of news, and other modern means of living the child today may feel he lives in a whirlwind unless we take time to smooth the way to a more serene tempo. Maybe the little school is gone: its purpose for being, however, remains. And this whatever the number of pupils, few or many, must not be forgotten. We need to learn truth and values, and we need each other always.

Twins

ALMA C. MAHAN



Democracy becomes a figure head
When freedom knows but greed and selfishness
Or blind obedience to rites. Instead
All individuals must coalesce
Into one great cooperating whole
With thought for common good. For genuine
Democracy is such—and not control
By few. For liberty was born a twin.

This people can remain autonomous
If all possess the treasured legacy;
For liberty becomes unscrupulous
Unless completely merged with loyalty.
When these unite democracy begins,
As liberty and loyalty are twins.

Civilization and Reality*

ROBERT ULLICH

ALL CIVILIZATION can be characterized as man's passionate attempt to understand and master reality. Two of the main tools by which civilization tries to achieve this goal are teaching and research, which are at the same time the pillars on which the edifice of higher learning, i.e., our colleges and universities, is built.

Therefore, in order to arrive at some clarity about the historical situation and the mission of our academic institutions, it may be worth while to describe, though only in brief outline, the relation of men to reality at the main stages of our civilization and the role which thought and learning have played in this development.

If our statement is true that civilization springs from man's endeavor to understand, and so master, the problems of reality, then it is also true that his relation to reality can be used as one of the most reliable indicators of his mentality and degree of progress.

This, as we will explain later in more

detail, cannot be otherwise, for to the degree that man feels close to reality, he feels also close to "truth" or to that which is valid, and to the same degree he feels also secure and confident about himself, his life, and his future.

"Primitive" cultures could be described as those which have not yet arrived at a mature concept of truth, i.e., at such an understanding of the world as allows man some reliance on his concepts and ideas about facts, functions, and relationships. Consequently primitive cultures are "magic" rather than "rational" cultures. Yet, far from being simple and uncomplicated, as they are often characterized, they reveal to the careful observer a high degree of complexity. Their members feel uncertain in their relation to life and try to overcome this through an elaborate system of defensive techniques.¹ These techniques appear partly in the form of customs which have the character of sanctity and cannot be neglected without courting the revenge of offended destiny. Therefore the tribe as a whole punishes the sinner in order to avert the ire of the eery "forces." To these defense techniques belong also sacrifices, often of the most cruel form such as the sacrifices of children or of young men and women. Furthermore they appear in the tendency of primitive man to surround himself with objects supposed to possess protective power against evil forces and ideas. Even in our modern

* An address delivered at *The Second Century Celebration of Ripon College*, Ripon, Wisconsin, October 29-November 1, 1947.

¹ One of the most expressive symbols of primitive fear, at the same time of high artistic value, can be found in the drawing of a sort of ghoulish spirit by a member of the Geimbio tribe of Australia. From the wrists and elbows of this thin and hairy spirit hang human bones taken from the dead whom he seeks to devour. (See *The Mythology of All Races*, edited by Louis Herbert Gray and George Foot Moore, Vol. IX, p. 284. Boston: Marshall Jones Company, 1916).

enlightened society one could easily point at many similar defense techniques which spring from an irrational relation of man to reality, such as the wearing of amulets, the use of medals with the picture of a saint by automobilists, or the consultation of astrologists by modern businessmen.

Part of the *grandeur* of the Greeks is that, in our Western civilization, they first began to search systematically for the quality of reality, thought profoundly about its character, and developed the intellectual categories which help us still today in our attempt to order our impressions about the world of mind and nature.

The Greek thinker was a proud and truly aristocratic man. He was confident that through his own effort the individual would become increasingly capable of substituting rational concepts for magical ideas and, in this way, of identifying his own accidental existence with the laws of the universe.

To substantiate our statement about the Greek spirit we quote a passage from Aristotle, taken from the *Posterior Analytics* (87b 28-88a 2):

Scientific knowledge is not possible merely through the act of perception. Even if perception as a faculty is of "the such" and not merely of "this somewhat," yet one must at any rate actually perceive a "this somewhat," and at a definite present place and time; but that which is commensurately universal and true in all cases one cannot perceive, since it is not "this" and it is not "now"; if it were, it would not be commensurately universal—the

term we apply to what is always and everywhere. Seeing, therefore, that demonstrations are commensurately universal and universals imperceptible, we clearly cannot obtain scientific knowledge by the act of perception. . . .

It will be hard to find a more amazing example of the ascendancy of man than the change from magical polytheism toward philosophical self-reflection as it occurred in the Hellenic culture from the seventh to the fourth century; and in considering this ascendancy we understand the words of the Roman, Lucretius, in the third book of *De Rerum Natura*:²

O Glory of the Greeks! who first didst
chase
The mind's dread darkness with celestial
day,
The worth illustrating of human life . . .
For as the doctrines of thy godlike mind
Prove into birth how nature first uprose,
All terrors vanish; the blue walls of heaven
Fly instant—and the boundless void
throughout
Teems with created things.

What is rational in the medieval concept of truth and reality, especially the endeavor to harmonize the Christian revelation with the demands of the intellect, is Greek heritage, gratefully acknowledged by the scholastic theologians. Thomas Aquinas knew what he owed to Aristotle; for him Aristotle is simply "The Philosopher" or "The Teacher." But it is always dangerous to subject to intellectual scrutiny an irrational, or superrational, idea like that of the Christian revelation. The two easily run into conflict. Hence there emerges in the later period of scholasticism the dubious idea of a "duplex

² Lucretius, *De Rerum Natura*, translated by John Mason Good. London: Longmans, 1805. Vol. I, p. 371.

"*veritas*" or a double verity, the one being *veritas divina* and expressing itself in the Bible, the other being *veritas humana* and expressing itself in secular philosophy.

Needless to say, this idea of a "double verity" was nothing but a concession of the medieval thinker who found himself unable to establish an harmonious relation between the two authorities in which he believed, the theology of the Church and the philosophy of the Greeks, or of truth as revealed and truth as resulting from systematically ordered human experience. However, in any attempt at a complete system of thought, certain antinomies always emerge as a consequence of the inadequacy of human reason when confronted with the depth and magnitude of the problem of existence. Thus the medieval philosophers in facing their specific conflict and in trying somehow to solve it were not intellectually dishonest. Their conflict, in other words, was genuine, because the available amount of knowledge offered no other solutions than those which were tried. But the dilemma became tragically intensified when the Christian theologians refused to accept the heliocentric theory of Copernicus, Galileo, and Kepler. Truly, how could this earth, where God had spoken with Adam and Eve and to which He had sent His own Son in order to redeem man from the sins of his first parents, be but a little speck revolving around

the sun together with millions of other stars in a seemingly endless universe? On the other hand, how could the theologians misinterpret the spirit of Aristotle and Christ to such a degree that they refused to look through the telescope which Galileo put before their noses?

Says Galileo in his touching letter to the Grand duchess of Tuscany:

Methinks that in the discussion of Natural problems, we ought not to begin at the authority of places of Scripture, but at sensible experiments and necessary demonstrations: For, from the Divine Word, the Sacred Scripture and Nature did both alike proceed; the first, as the Holy Ghost's inspiration; the second, as the most observant executrix of God's commands: Natural effects, which either sensible experience sets before our eyes, or necessary demonstrations to prove unto us, ought not, upon any account, to be called into question, much less condemned, upon the testimony of texts of Scripture, which may, under their words, couch senses seemingly contrary thereto: In regard that every expression of Scripture is not tied to so strict conditions, as every effect of nature: Nor does God less admirably discover Himself unto us in nature's actions, than in the Scripture's sacred dictions. Which peradventure Tertullian intended to express in those words: "We conclude, God is known; first by Nature, and then again more particularly known by Doctrine: by Nature, in His Works; by Doctrine, in His Word preached."¹²

We smile now at the superstition of the theologians. But since so many of us are unable to conceive without horror of a new order among nations and economic systems, how can we blame our ancestors for having been afraid of a theory which cut much more deeply into

¹² Translation taken from Thomas Salusbury's *Mathematical Collections and Translations*, London, 1661. See *Three Thousand Years of Educational Wisdom*, edited by Robert Ulrich. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1947, pp. 305, 323 ff.

their fundamental beliefs than nationalist and economic considerations should do.

By their refusal to admit that the systems of Thomas Aquinas and the other great doctors of the Church no longer represented man's picture of reality—unless the systems underwent a thorough reinterpretation and modification—the theologians themselves, against their very intentions, destroyed the feeling of harmony between human and Divine thought, or between man and the Universe. With the obstinacy typical in such cases they loved their personal and partial idea of truth more than the continued search for truth itself, the content of which had been changed by the methods and discoveries of the pioneers of science. And the unlearned still lived along in a strange mixture of fancy and fact which, despite its logical inadequacies, apparently satisfied the emotional needs of many men in earlier centuries, as it still does in ours.

Whoever reads the works of the great scholastic theologians from whom medieval man received his ideas about the meaning of reality will agree that in the history of the human race a high degree of factual error and ignorance can go hand in hand with a similarly high degree of subjective sincerity and happiness about "having the truth." That has always been so with men and probably will continue. But the moment this subjective sincerity is lost as a consequence of doubts occurring in the progress of thought, the feeling of unity and harmony with reality is gone too and, however desirable from a subjective

point of view, it cannot be restored by mere desire for inner comfort. To be sure, some people manage to press the rising doubts down into the subconscious, or, those in power can kill and imprison those who rebel against the obsolete tradition. But in the long run convention does not help. At best the old truth which refuses to give way to the new one can survive only as a convention (which is always a kind of social contract of the timid). Such a convention, however, is unproductive. By its very nature it must be afraid of new influences and try to buttress its crumbling walls by loud pronouncements of infallibility; and it makes, as we see in our days, no difference whether the fearful belong to an admittedly authoritarian institution, or believe that they are called to defend "democracy," though against its own inherent premises. But all such artificial measures are no substitute for the creative vitality characteristic of periods of intellectual courage and widening horizons. Convention has no conviction; hence those who live on it surrender easily to external pressures provided they are sufficiently menacing, or promising. Otherwise it would be inexplicable that so many people, including a large part of the clergy, in our so-called Christian and liberal culture preferred some compromise with modern fascism and its tyrants to a courageous fight.

One could also say that people who live on convention have lost their hold on reality. And since reality, as a jealous master, yields to man only to the degree that he respects it, and punishes him to the degree that he tries to neglect its

warnings, every true progress of mankind, both in thought and in action, is always also a step further toward that which is real, and vice versa. As Hegel said, all true development is but the realization of the Real in the consciousness of man. Consequently all progress involves a destruction of "unreal" beliefs once held and cherished in all sincerity. History, therefore, is a continual tearing down and building up of ideas, a continual resignation of the intellect for the purpose of achieving more valid certainties which in turn will have to be sacrificed for better instruments in man's effort to understand the world and his place in it. But in all the change, there is nevertheless one thing that is continuous, namely the effort to understand, which would be impossible without the abiding challenge of, and the abiding principles inherent in, Reason.

But let us now continue our brief historical survey. It was the movement of the Enlightenment, or Rationalism, and not the Church, which emerged as victor from the struggle between medieval scholasticism and Galilean empiricism. For about a hundred and fifty years, from the second half of the 17th to the end of the 18th and even the beginning of the 19th century, the rationalist spirit provided motivation and direction for the progressive minds. Of course there existed in this time a shallow sort of intellectual arrogance which considered the whole universe a useful device played into the hands of man by a kind, but meanwhile retired creator, an intellectual arrogance which, as a reflection of its own spiritual poverty, had no explanation for anything it failed to under-

stand, such as religion, other than the stock phrases of fraud and stupidity. But there was also the great rationalism of such men as Leibniz, Newton, Montesquieu, Herder, and Jefferson. This rationalism was still close enough to the religious-metaphysical tradition to dare use the transcendent-intuitive powers of the mind in its search for a comprehensive explanation of reality; yet, it was also anxious to use scientific-empirical methods of research. Thus in this period the two ways toward truth, the transcendent-intuitive and the scientific-empirical, did not exclude, but supported each other. The rationalized faith of a Thomas Aquinas and a Calvin could be changed over into a faithful rationalism. It pervaded both the great scientific and philosophical systems of the time and found its coronation in the system of Hegel, though in many other respects Hegel had already outgrown the typical Enlightenment in consequence of the influences he had received from Kant, from Romanticism, and from the general disappointment in the French revolution. Always the man furthest advanced in a particular movement of thought has his hand on the door that leads toward the next stage of culture.

There is a brief poem by Walt Whitman which, more beautifully than any scholarly prose, describes the great hopes of the rational-idealistic era. Walt Whitman gave it the title: *Roaming in Thought (After reading Hegel)*. It reads:

Roaming in thought over the universe I saw
the little that is Good steadily hastening
toward immortality,
And the vast all that is call'd Evil I saw

hastening to merge itself and become lost and dead.

In the period of Rationalism, for the last time in our civilization, the various fields of knowledge: mathematics, the natural sciences, philosophy, and the humanities, were not yet completely divided; each in its way was expected to reveal, though by rational and no longer by theological means, the divine plan in the creation of which man was the most perfect achievement. This is the reason for the beautiful enthusiasm of the 18th century which provided the men of that period with a theoretical confidence comparable only to that of the Periclean age.

Says Goethe's teacher, the theologian and philosopher Johann Gottfried Herder, in the Preface to his *Outlines of a Philosophy of the History of Man*:

Shall he, who has ordered everything in nature, said I to myself, by number, weight and measure; who has so regulated according to these the essence of things, their forms and relations, their course and subsistence, that only one wisdom, goodness, and power prevail from the system of the universe to the grain of sand, from the power that supports worlds and suns to the texture of a spider's web; who has so wonderfully and divinely weighed everything in our body, and in the faculties of our mind, that, when we attempt to reflect on the *only-wise* ever so remotely, we lose ourselves in an abyss of his purposes; shall that God depart from his wisdom and goodness in the general destination and disposition of our species, and act in these without a plan?⁴

Practically, this optimism proved it-

self in an essential change of man's attitude toward his society. Its structure and government were no longer considered to be of almost sacramental nature, beyond all doubt and criticism, but were regarded as instruments given to man for the purpose of happiness and progress. Whatever we may think about the notion of the "social contract"—which even Rousseau used more as a symbol than as a reference to a specific fact—nobody can doubt its historical significance. For it revealed to the people that they, and not some magic power behind the events of history, were responsible for their government and its functioning, that they were at fault if they suffered from it, and that consequently they had also the right to change it. The modern concept of democracy and of the citizen's rights and duties resulted from this rationalistic faith that man can grasp the truth about the nature and laws of reality, and correct his environment accordingly.

However, this rationalist faith, or this combination of intuition and intellectualism, did not last for long. The scientists and critical philosophers of the 19th century revealed that the great speculative systems of Hegel and his contemporaries were based too much on deductive and too little on empirical principles to provide a reliable picture of reality. Unfortunately, most of the positivist critics forgot that the greatest achievements of human thought may, and will inevitably, contain factual mistakes at the fringes without necessarily being fallacious in the core. Rationalist optimism suffered also in the political realm. The disastrous end of the French

⁴ From the English translation of Herder's *Ideen zur Philosophie der Geschichte der Menschheit* by T. Churchill, London, 1800, p. VII.

revolution, the Napoleonic wars, the failure of several liberal revolutions, and the misery of the masses amidst an enormous accumulation of wealth in the era of early industrialism, all these disappointing events destroyed the great—and extremely productive—illusion that man was sufficiently rational and human ratio sufficiently penetrating to force Destiny from its transcendent abodes into the orbit of human power and planning.

Thus there began in the first half of the 19th century the era of that modern kind of empiricism in which more and more leading thinkers forewent completely the idea of arriving at any sort of integrated philosophical truth, because it is impossible to achieve without the help of intuition. Pushing aside the problems which were not accessible to experiment and observation, they isolated their research objects from their total context, broke them down into their different variables, concentrated on each of them in the mood of joyful resignation which is characteristic of the specialist, and thus achieved the most amazing practical results in the sciences, in medicine, and in engineering, from which we all profit—but by which we also may be killed.

Most of these men were religiously indifferent and definitely anti-philosophical, which was often even better than the mixture of philosophical presumption and ignorance by which some of the modern scientific specialists try to settle once and for all profound metaphysical and religious problems in their hours of leisure. The whole scientific generation of the second half of the 19th century could not forget the religious

dogmatism to which some had been exposed at home, and the speculative philosophical dogmatism from which they had suffered during their student years. They failed to realize that in the meantime even philosophy had gone through a process of radical self-criticism, though even this was frequently of a merely negative character and produced nothing but relativism, materialism, or anarchism, or a general feeling of *Weltschmerz*. For the philosophic mind, by an inherent urge to penetrate to the bottom of a problem, is generally more radical in drawing the consequences from its premises—however doubtful—than the scientist who generally takes his agnosticism not so seriously, as a sort of hobby, because he finds a certain satisfaction in the security of his methods and the practical results of his work.

The separation of technical expertise from the speculative wisdom of mankind is all the more dangerous as, in contrast to half a century ago, the dominating role in our society has gone over from the humanist to the scientist and engineer, who thus enter into a triumvirate with the lawyer. They all seem today much more important to big capital and governments than the thinkers and teachers who care for humanity. In addition, in consequence of their constantly expanding chances, the sciences attract increasingly the more intelligent and enterprising part of youth, whereas in earlier times that same youth was attracted by the humanities and by law. Consequently there arises a serious problem of civilization. The leading group always sets the pattern of emulation for

the large majority of the people. But if this group, rather than being concerned with a comprehensive relation of man to truth or reality, is interested only in specialized research and its application for whatever purpose, whether productive or diabolic, then its culture is bound to lose in depth and fullness—which have nothing to do with merely external comfort—and become one of cheapness of taste, vulgarity of opinion, and poverty of inspiration.

Such a narrowly technical society fulfills not even the one purpose we would expect it to fulfill, namely, freeing men from the fetters of prejudice and superstition. One of the largest items in the expense accounts of the population of big cities flows into the pockets of palm-readers, astrologists, soothsayers, and other quacks in destiny. In other words, many people have either never grown out of the state of magical primitiveness (as a matter of fact, traces of earlier stages of culture remain in us all) or they have relapsed into a state of mental insecurity despite, or perhaps because of, all their technical achievements; for through these our modern civilization has become so overcomplicated and unhuman that it can no longer be mastered by rational means. Racial prejudices have not abated, but increased, in spite of all organized attempts at fighting them. The curse of nationalism hangs heavily over man; and the quarrels of the denominations threaten increasingly the unity of nations and of public education, though, strangely enough, few people really care for the differences in the tenets of the various Christian sects. But actually there was more hope for a

unification of the Christian churches in the time of Leibniz than there is now. And no absolutist prince would have dared to squander the wealth and health of his people and to violate the rights of man to the degree that Mussolini, Hitler, and Franco have. In other words, a merely sense-directed or "sensate" culture, to use a term of Pitirim Sorokin, does not become freer or more "realistic" in the best sense of the word. On the contrary, through lifting its anchors out of the deeper grounds of reality, it becomes the tool of the most a-rational and anti-rational forces. People may not feel this as long as fortunate external circumstances do not endanger external security and convention. But the dangers of both modern neo-primitiveness and irrationalism, in other words, the loss of truth and reality, come immediately to light when the external holds break down and man is thrown back on his own inner resources; they are too weak to support him.

* * *

Inevitably the confusion in modern man's attitude toward reality shows also in his philosophical and religious opinions. Those who wish to do so can run the whole gamut from philosophical idealism to scepticism, and, with respect to religion, from orthodoxy and obscurantism to schools of thought which can hardly be distinguished from secular humanism and naturalism, each of these philosophical and religious schools having a completely different standpoint with respect to the nature of reality and man's relation to it. Inevitably, this state of things reflects on one of the most central activities of modern

society, namely, education.

Should youth be taught that reality is that, and only that, which we can touch and see, or that it is identical with, because a part of, a creative spirit, or that there exists a strict duality between matter and mind? In other words, should education be conducted on a materialistic basis, or in the spirit of philosophical or religious idealism, or according to a dualistic *Weltanschauung*? Should education acquaint the young with the present and its practical and vocational tasks, or should it be all this together in order to educate a youth toward an all-round personality?

It should be unnecessary to state that we can never expect, nor should we expect, the state of confusion to turn over into a state of general agreement. There will be idealists and naturalists, essentialists and experimentalists, mechanists and teleologists, believers and agnostics, existentialists and the school of mathematical logicians, just as, in the field of education proper, there will be advocates of divergent points of view. In addition, often that which pessimistically might be called confusion, could optimistically be termed richness. Perhaps it is the very sign of the fatigue, disillusion, and defeatism of our time that so many no longer feel the potential wealth which is in the manifoldness of thought, but rather the embarrassment. All the various movements and conversions which, though distinct

from the brutality of modern totalitarianism, might nevertheless be called movements toward totalism and authoritarianism, are but signs of our failure to hold up the banner of liberty at a time when it should again fly from the highest parapet of the rampart. Yet, let us be honest; why is none of us, except perhaps the ignorant and shallow kind of optimist, completely free from a certain anxiety and the fear that *Der Streit der Fakultäten*, as Kant called it at the end of the 18th century, might lead toward chaos?

Why could the French philosopher Fortunat Strowski begin his book *L'homme Moderne*, published in 1931 (Paris: Bernard Grasset), with the following words:

Les hommes d'aujourd'hui sont malheureux; les plus décidés d'entre eux redoutent l'avenir, et le présent déçoit les plus faciles à contenter. C'est un malaise que Pascal avait décrit sous le nom d'inquiétude et qu'il avait représenté comme l'état propre de l'homme.

Aujourd'hui, ce malaise s'est exacerbé. Depuis l'Allemagne, jusqu'à l'Amérique paisible et dorée, les êtres humains s'agitent; le moindre nuage à l'horizon les épouvante; l'ombre scelle du danger les met en déroute. Chacun, en soi, et vis-à-vis de soi, se tourmente et va du sentiment de l'insécurité au sentiment de l'ennui.

There are many reasons for this mental state. But one of them is certainly the more or less unconscious feeling that there is something "unreal" in all our disputes, that politically they become fights in a sphere of statesmanship separated from the *volonté générale*,¹ and scholarly quarrels in a sphere of theory separated from the really pro-

¹At a political meeting, held in Boston in September 1947, one of the speakers could say about one of the modern American statesmen: "As a political leader, Mr. X is in a very difficult situation. He has nothing behind him but the people."

found concerns of man. But why is it so?

There is only one explanation. Behind so many of these statesmen humanity does not stand. For, in its deepest aspects, the idea of humanity is only metaphysically understandable, yet it is the only and ultimate reality to which politics should be related; behind so many modern professors and experts in philosophy, education, and similar fields there does not stand the passionate desire to see their speciality related to the great question as to what man "really" is; and behind so many scientists there stands no longer Nature in all its mysterious majesty and grandeur, but some narrow technical purpose. Hence many of our best students cannot help feeling that their classes are mainly a display of scholarship about divergent systems of thought, or an analytical procedure following which they stand before a pile of broken bricks instead of a cathedral of great ideas fitted to relate man to the totality of life as far as is in his grasp. The young student cannot always express conceptually what he senses but vaguely; nevertheless exactly the best of our youth sense it intensely from the emotional and spiritual point of view. They sense that they move primarily on a horizontal level of acquisition of knowledge, but are not shown the vertical lines by which the various segments of information could be united in a meaningful center so that true wisdom results.

This, as has already been said, is certainly more difficult today than in times of a universal dogma; modern man, young or old, has to develop a much

higher degree of personal initiative and courage to arrive at his own personal *Weltanschauung*, or concept of reality. And the higher his intellectual ambition the more it behooves him to expose the peace of his mind to the productive unrest of search until the final direction is found. Here is the deepest reason why so many of us are suspicious of denominational education.

But we have a right to this suspicion only if we do not exchange the danger of narrowness in denominationalism for the danger of technicalism, indifferentism, and thus float without direction. Here lie the deepest tasks of modern education, especially higher education, on which during the past years so many books have been written and so many plans advanced. I do not deny their value, and I am far from saying that certain plans may not be more conducive to education toward a full and mature concept of reality than others. But essentially it makes no difference whether a teacher professes his belief in liberal and general education, or in the hundred books, or in early specialization and in practical and applied learning. The real criterion, and the real hope for the revival of an inspiring culture and education, is whether we still have professors who not only convey information but who, as the word says, "profess" something, that means, teach in such a way that the necessarily isolated subject matter is nevertheless revelatory of the great and universal reality of which it is a part. If that is done the teachers may belong to whatever school of thought they wish, there will nevertheless be a community of search and spirit

among them. And the students will consider them not merely as appointees, each selling his merchandise behind his nicely separated counter, but as trustees of the Spirit, or as men who may start from different parts of the valley and yet all be guides toward the same summit from which those willing and able to take the risk of climbing will enjoy a wide and rewarding view of God's creation.

In conclusion, let me quote once more the great American Walt Whitman, in order to express in the symbolic language of an artist what logical discourse can express but inadequately.

At the end of his *Song of the Redwood Tree*, he speaks emphatically of his hopes for the future of this country. This country, so he says, may have the

historical mission of expressing the "genius of the modern." But though this will be possible partly because of the vast material resources this country possesses, it will certainly not be for this reason alone; rather it will come about if America is capable of bringing to life the unity for which the older countries have always been longing without really achieving it, namely the unity of the "real" and the "ideal."

"Fresh come," so he addresses his American compatriots—

Fresh come, to a new world indeed, yet long prepared,
I see the genius of the modern, child of the real and ideal,
Clearing the ground for broad humanity,
the true America, heir of the past so grand,
To build a grander future.

Excellence is never granted to man but as the reward of labor. It argues no small strength of mind to persevere in habits of industry without the pleasure of perceiving those advances, which, like the hand of a clock, whilst they make hourly approaches to their point, yet proceed so slowly as to escape observation.—SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS

Salt Without Savor

GERTRUDE A. CASAD

I saw a star, salt of the sky, trailing
A tassel of fire-dust, fall . . .
Leaving the sky bluer,
Eemptier for its briefer-than-a-second's
Falling.

I saw my friend, salt of the earth, coffined
Under the flag he had fought for; he whose cold dark star
Had trailed a flaming dust
For too brief a time but time enough to leave our eyes
Tear-blinded.

I saw the flag folded, and heard
The bugled taps, and the three farewell volleys of rifle shots
Sounding finality.
Cold, and irretrievable as the sudden sky over a star,
Fallen.

I saw faces congealed with tears, denying star
And star-dust;
The hollow echoes of bugled taps and rifle volleys to be
Forever in their hearts . . .
Salt without savor.

Book Reviews

BIOGRAPHY

JUAREZ AND HIS MEXICO by Ralph Roeder. New York: The Viking Press. 1947, 2 volumes, 380 + 383 pp. \$10.00.

Long overdue and much needed volumes on Latin American life, history, biography, literature, and civilization are now appearing quite regularly in our book stores—books by authorities in a particular field. It is gratifying to note that the present vintage is far superior to that which flooded the markets several years ago—books written by overnight and would-be "specialists," who after a flying trip over the southern countries and after spending a few hours or days in the hotels of the Latin American capitals, returned to the United States to write and to publish a lengthy report.

Anyone familiar with Mexican history knows that a biography of Benito Juarez ought to be exciting. Happily, Mr. Roeder's work is. A solid and factual account, revealing thorough and excellent research, it has the zestful spark that a story of Juarez' life should have. The birth of the Indian leader in a mountain village, his schooling in Oaxaca through the generosity of a wealthy family, his graduation from the Institute of Arts and Sciences are the starting point of this two volume work. The author then proceeds with Juarez' rise to local power, his political exile in New Orleans, and his leadership of the Liberal forces in the Civil War. Roeder's portrait corresponds with the one drawn by the famous Spanish orator and president of the First Spanish Republic, Emilio Castelar: "Look at him, hunted, persecuted, without resources, with the forces of France against him, defying everything with his head high, illuminated by the glow of conscience, while the somber shadows of remorse creep over the brows of the conqueror." From Ralph Roeder's

study of Juarez' life and work emerges the man about whom Victor Hugo wrote: "Mexico has been saved by an ideal—a man. You [Juarez] are that man."

This study is not only the story of the president who stepped forth upon the stage of Mexican affairs to dominate what has been probably the noblest period in the history of the republic; it is also an intimate picture of nineteenth-century Mexico. Obviously, Mr. Roeder's talent as an historian is commensurate with his ability as a biographer. The author draws a vivid picture of the War of Reform (1857-1860), whose leaders "derived their philosophy of progress from the liberal middle class developed abroad by capitalist democracy." He reviews the year 1861, when Great Britain, France, and Spain reached an agreement to occupy Mexican seaports and to collect the customs duties until their pecuniary demands should be satisfied. Lastly, he brings before us the well known Franco-Mexico struggle. One the one side there were the Austrian Archduke, Maximilian, and his beautiful pleasure loving wife, Carlota, who were installed as Emperor and Empress of Mexico. On the other there was Juarez, who never lost faith in the belief that Mexico must one day emerge again as an independent republic, and who never ceased to carry on his work as its president, directing his countrymen in opposition to a foreign rule foisted upon them. Although Juarez was re-elected president in 1871, his genius was not equal to the appalling problem of reconstruction which confronted him. There were insurrections and revolts. In fact it was during a revolt that death cut short the sixty-six years of Benito Juarez, who has been called the Abraham Lincoln of Mexico and Benemérito de America.

Thus ends this informal, smoothly written historical biography, well digested from sources, many of which are familiar. Designed for the general reader—almost, one feels, for a reader who has known nothing whatever of Juarez—it carries no paraphernalia of documentation. However, the bibliography at the end of Volume II will be a source of satisfaction to the reader tantalized as to the source and dependability of a given datum.

EDNA LUE FURNESS

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BIOLOGY

SEXUAL BEHAVIOR IN THE HUMAN MALE by Alfred C. Kinsey, Wardell B. Pomeroy and Clyde E. Martin. W. B. Saunders Company. 787 pp. \$6.50.

There are few, if any, scholars and even relatively few laymen who have not heard of the "sex" studies which have been more widely publicized than any other medical work of recent years. Based on surveys made by members of the Staff of Indiana University, and supported by the National Research Council with Rockefeller Foundation funds this later study has scientific backing and academic respectability. The authors performed a laborious task, interviewing more than 12,000 persons to secure their data. The subjects were of various ages, races, and social and religious groups.

As indicated by the Gallup Poll survey the American people approved the report, whether Catholic or Protestant, college-educated or non-college persons. Perhaps in fear that the purpose of the report might be misunderstood, and knowing the interest of people in sex, whether in scientific basis, fiction, the stage, etc., the publishers give a foreword which is also an admonition. The volume is, they say, an "objective, factual study," and one intended primarily for "workers in the field of medi-

cine, biology, psychology, sociology, anthropology and allied science, and for teachers, social workers, personnel officers, law enforcement groups, and others concerned with the direction of human behavior." Perhaps the last phrase accounts for the fact that the advertising in quantity and character was more like that for a popular book rather than for a technical medical book, and for the fact that it is being issued in popular reprints and condensations.

The data presented are full and frank. It should be understood that the authors are not concerned in this study with the social or moral implications of their findings. They present what is, not what should be, leaving it to others to explore these aspects. The final paragraph states: "As scientists, we have explored, and we have performed our function when we have published the record of what we have found the human male doing sexually, as far as we have been able to ascertain the fact."

This is a book for the specialist rather than for the general reader. The teacher must understand the pupil, and this volume should give him data of importance. It should make him more sympathetic toward the problems of young people, if he knows these facts. If, from them, he is inclined to change his own moral standards and his ideals for his pupils he must remember that our society still places *ideally* a high rating on sexual morality, a standard much higher than its own practice. Facing the facts, he will use them to improve the situation. Because something prevails is no reason for adopting it as a standard. The use of intoxicants, profanity, over-eating and similar tabooed conduct are cases in point. The human race progresses by pointing to conduct higher than the average practice. The scientist is bound to furnish unbiased data; the social scientist is forced to consider the implications of the findings for the social welfare. It is a fact that we have much physical disease. It is just as truly a fact that we

spend millions to reduce its incidence.

The reviewer believes that the scientist should be free to publish his findings. If they are incorrect they will be corrected by later investigators. He believes, too, that when the practical applications to human life are considered, others as well as the scientists have a right to be heard. In the present case there should be serious discussion on the meaning of these facts for future attitudes and procedures in life and in the schools.

An additional warning should be given. Granting that it is true that sexual behavior of unapproved kind has been more prevalent than traditionally supposed, the percentages will be misleading if one reads into them a greater universality than the figures show. If ninety-nine per cent of the individuals have had the common cold, it does not prove that the usual situation is that Americans suffer from colds, or that if most people have measles sometime in their lives, that most of the people usually have measles. They may be occasions rather than recurring events, and occasions which the individual himself does not approve. It would be an interesting study to know how many of the persons studied here approve the actions in which they have themselves indulged, perhaps in a single instance, or perhaps habitually.

It would serve no useful purpose to list the information which the reader will find in these ample pages. It will suffice to say that the whole arc of sexual behavior is attacked frankly and fully. It is a volume which will be read for its *science* rather than for its ethical implications.

EDUCATION

AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION, AN INTRODUCTION by Douglass, Harl R., and Calvin Grieder. The Ronald Press Company. 1948, 593 pp. \$4.50.

The content of this textbook is, in the main, drawn from the history of American

education and from American school organization and administration. The first three chapters are historical and two others (Chapters 16 and 17) deal with foreign school systems. Chapters four to fifteen also contain some historical material but they deal primarily with (1) educational objectives, (2) educational organization, (3) educational agencies, local, state, federal, and non-governmental, (4) the pupils, (5) the curriculum and co-curriculum, (6) the teachers, and (7) finances. There are concluding chapters on the scientific movement in education, on school and community, and lastly, a look ahead.

There are a great many tables, lists, diagrams, and some good pictures of school activities. Each chapter has study questions and a bibliography; but the bibliographies are collected at the back of the volume. The book is well-organized, clear in statement, and filled with information.

The title indicates and the preface says that the book is intended as a text for courses in Introduction to Education.

H. G. Goon

The Ohio State University

BEHIND THE ACADEMIC CURTAIN by Archibald MacIntosh. Harper and Brothers. 160 pp. \$2.50.

This, the second volume published by the Educational Research Fund of The Tuition Plan, is a logical sequel to the earlier volume, *Admission to American Colleges*. The title might well have been *After Admission, What?* because it is concerned with what will happen to the student after he is enrolled. And so student mortality, guidance, and the student's eventual destiny are the topics of moment.

The author presents more than a theoretical, academic study. A survey was made of 276 American colleges distributed from North to South and East to West. The results are of value to administrators, but are equally of use to students and their

parents. All have a stake in the results which the college attains—the parents because of their natural interest in their children and the cost of educating them, the college because of its interest in promoting the general welfare, and also because either through the state's taxation or interest from the institution's endowment, a considerable investment is made in its students.

The author is Vice-President of Haverford College. He therefore looks practically at such matters as student counseling, the conservation of the student's energy and opportunity, and his retention until graduation. Stimulating questions are raised about the relative holding power of colleges which admit a single sex compared with coeducational institutions; the relationship of proper admission procedures in relation to their effect upon retention, and the causes of students' "dropping-out." He discusses these questions with wisdom and balance.



ENCYCLOPEDIA OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE. Edited by Oscar J. Kaplan. Philosophical Library, New York. Two Volumes, 1422 pp. \$17.50

The editor is to be commended upon undertaking the stupendous task of bringing together the information contained herein from all quarters of the globe, at a time when collecting data was extremely difficult. The war just closed brought many desirable activities to a standstill, and made communication difficult. Nor did those who have the information have the leisure time to assist. The preface delimits the task which was set. It frankly admits that the treatment is not exhaustive. Many topics were omitted because of lack of space. The Encyclopedia is intended primarily for professional counselors who do not have large library resources. Just as frank is the editor in omitting most of the economic aspects, especially the information about financial and occupational outlook. Changing economic conditions can make such data obsolete even while a book

is being published. The aptitude series is limited because tests are lacking or inadequate in many areas. On the whole these omissions are wise, even though the experts will find the books lacking because of its incompleteness.

A good service has been performed in describing the guidance activities of the leading countries of the world and the field is covered quite adequately, though it has been difficult to assemble trustworthy information from some countries.

Most of the commonly known and widely used tests are described. The inclusion of a description does not indicate endorsement of the test. The purpose has been description rather than evaluation and approval.

To bring together such a mass of information it was necessary to secure the cooperation of experts in many areas. Almost three hundred persons contributed. The list is too long to mention all. Among the authors of sections are Margaret Mead, Truman Lee Kelley, Arthur I. Gates, Henry C. Link, Carl E. Seashore, Lewis M. Terman, Edward K. Strong, Jr., L. L. Thurstone, Gilbert L. Betts, G. F. Kuder, Arthur S. Otis, T. Luther Purdom, H. H. Remmers, H. E. Schrammel, Ernest W. Tiegs, David Wechsler and J. Wayne Wrightstone. Contributors are identified by initials at the end of each article.

The general pattern of each article is a description followed by a selected group of references for additional reading. There is no index, probably with the thought that the topics themselves form the index. It is the reviewer's opinion that a rather exhaustive index would have been valuable for cross-reference purposes and for more exact location of materials. For example much valuable information is contained under the title *Earnings in the Major Occupations. Occupational Information* is the name of another section. There are no cross references for the user.

The former topic gives information of extraordinary value on recent earnings. For

example, the average income of gainfully employed workers in 1941 was approximately \$1,600, in 1945 it was approximately \$2,400, an increase of about 50 per cent. When the recent war started the average industrial worker and the average white collar worker were receiving approximately the same wage. The average industrial worker's wage went up to over \$2,600 and the average white collar worker's salary to about \$1,800, thus getting about two-thirds as much in 1945 and 1946 in proportion. Many other similar facts are revealed. A tie-in with sources of information as they are revealed today would help the reference value immensely. The editor has chosen to list his topics somewhat after the plan of the Encyclopaedia Britannica, by large topics rather than by minute analysis.

But it is well to conclude by emphasis upon the excellencies of the work. The information is recent and up-to-date. A wide range of subject matter is included. There is a rather comprehensive coverage of the field. Reference is given to publishers in the case of tests though, wisely in the present fluctuation of costs, prices of test materials are omitted. And finally, it is advantageous to have available in one place a well-selected summary of the guidance materials—history, tests, techniques—and to have these evaluated by recognized authorities in their subjects.



PLATO'S THEORY OF EDUCATION by R. C. Lodge, With an Appendix on The Education of Women According to Plato by Rabbi Solomon Frank. Harcourt, Brace and Co., 332 pp. \$5.00

An avid reader of modern educational literature cannot fail to be impressed with the confusion that prevails. Much of it is little else but scissor and paste composition, lifting ideas plus mistakes from earlier or contemporary writers, the blind leading the blind. A great deal is shot through with philosophical, economic, or religious bias and prejudice, an attempt to maintain a

thesis rooted in early emotional experiences often wholly forgotten.

This confusion reached the *reductio ad absurdum* in the "child-centered school" where the educator, lost in the fog of his own incapacity and wandering blindly through the darkness, cried out to the immature and equally confused child, "Lead me, for I cannot find the way!" The inevitable result was an overdeveloped individualism on the part of the child and a conviction of failure on the part of his teacher.

In this state of lost leadership which so completely pervades modern education, it is refreshing to open again the Dialogues of Plato and read there in clear and certain language the answers for which the most penetrating of modern teachers are groping. For the busy teacher a careful reading of these Dialogues, I realize, is out of the question. Nevertheless, understanding of the thought of Plato is a prerequisite to any clear thinking in the present educational fog. Thus every person concerned with modern education should receive with enthusiasm Professor Lodge's new study of *Plato's Theory of Education*. This is the result of careful scholarship, copiously footnoted, but written in a style easily understood by those not versed in Platonic scholarship.

Here Plato is portrayed as a "comparative philosopher, comparing dialectically the chief varieties of philosophic belief: with a bias in favor of idealism, as contrasted with a simple realism and an equally simple pragmatism, but presenting his views dramatically and leaving it to the reader to reach decisions of his own." Although evidence is gathered from all the Dialogues to present Plato's educational theory, the major emphasis is placed, rightly, upon the *Republic* and the *Laws* where his "theory of education is developed formally and with some approach to systematic constructive ness."

Education, according to Plato, is "a definite art: an art which guides, reshapes,

and controls human experience in accordance with an intelligible principle of value; improving upon nature at every step of the game." These principles of value are found in the community so that the goals are socially approved ends. Thus, for Plato, "adult life is an unremitting struggle for existence, and the nursery is not the goal." Education has a definite purpose and that purpose is resident in adult civic life. Plato's chief interest "is in education for character, education for citizenship, and education for leadership in a community of freemen co-operating in realizing the ideal which we know as the Hellenic way of life."

Too often we read Plato in terms of his ideal community as portrayed in the *Republic* and think of him as concerned wholly with the education of a totalitarian aristocracy. Professor Lodge shows this to be an incorrect interpretation. In his chapters dealing with *Vocational and Technical Education* and *Education for the Professions* we have a clear picture of practical training which may, if the recipient has the requisite qualities, lead to higher education and participation in the highest offices of the community.

The book deals with the problems of education for citizenship and for leadership, with association and imitation, teachers and teaching, subject matter—composition, the pupil and learning, mind, and with Plato and the modern educational mind.

It is the last two chapters of the book that impress one with the utter timeliness of Plato. In his chapter entitled *Education and Democracy: Plato and the Moderns* Professor Lodge presents the arguments of the "progressives" who would place Plato on a dusty shelf where he must remain unless some musty scholar takes him down to learn the quaint ideas of long-dead days, and the "classical scholars" who hold that "on matters of educational theory, the last word was spoken, and well spoken, between 428 and 348 B.C." When the evidence for both positions is spread before us, we learn that Plato was not opposed

to democracy as we understand it today, but fought "the abuses of democracy" prevalent in his times. Further, the slavery which Plato tacitly approved was not as bad as much slavery today, and what he said on the problem gave evidence of an understanding far beyond his age. Again, Plato's education was not to be restricted to the few, as is often maintained. Rather, he advocated education for all in terms of their talents and nature. In this his ideas were as modern as those of our own "moderns"—education suited to the needs of the individual and in terms of his abilities. This, of course, included vocational training for those whose talents and abilities indicate that they will devote themselves to vocational pursuits. After presenting the evidence, Professor Lodge concludes, "From this evidence we realize that the charges that Plato's educational views are excessively 'aristocratic,' that his ideal community rests upon an unmodern institution, namely, slavery, and that his theories apply only to the few members of the master-class: so that his ideas are completely out of touch with our modern kind of democratic civilization: are not in accord with textual facts, and should be withdrawn."

In addition, Professor John Dewey's criticism that Plato advocates a stratified society in which three hard-and-fast classes are maintained is refuted on the ground that membership in each group depended upon one's talents and abilities and not upon birth or the will of the rulers. In fact, he finds a close parallel at many points with Dewey's ideas on the democratic society.

It is true that Plato's world and ours are poles apart. Our political, economic, and social world is bigger than that of Plato. Plato's "World is in space rather than in time, we moderns live in time rather than in space." Ours is an age of science and industry while Plato's was one of pre-science and crafts. Nevertheless, if we analyze modern educational practices on the

various levels, we find a profound similarity in principle. "Our conclusion thus is, that present-day educational theory does not have to scrap the past while it sets out to create the brave new world of the future. It is all the stronger if it retains its continuity with what is of value in the great philosophic tradition which bears us powerfully forward. In that tradition, sympathetic and accurate study reveals Plato as still among our leaders. He is not just another figure of the remote past, whose ideas may be taken as read, on the ground that they were all wrong and unmodern anyway. On the contrary: his ideas, looked at closely, are seen to be our ideas; and his inspiration is still vital and useful to us in our task of creating a humanly worthwhile educational system."

Perhaps it is not too much to hope that those moderns who are not too far stupefied by the fog will return to Plato, there to find the proper relationship between dynamic youth and the community of values into which he must grow, and will find, also, the right relationship between this community and the eternal verities which Plato understood as goodness, beauty, and truth in some absolute and unchanging sense. It may be that the philosophy of despair, pragmatism, has served to show man the inadequacy of any educational theory that does not, at least, reach out toward the "True."

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**THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING BASED
ON GROUP REPORTS OF THE OXFORD
CONFERENCE, MIAMI UNIVERSITY,
OXFORD, OHIO, JULY, 1947.**

In one of the many efforts to meet the challenge of the present world situation in its demands upon education and more specifically, upon the teaching profession, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association has issued a

168-page pamphlet based on the discussions of the Oxford Conference at Miami University, in July, 1947.

The document treats of four large subdivisions, viz.:

- (a) Improving the Profession Itself
- (b) Improving the Educational Program
- (c) Improving the School Environment and Teaching Situation
- (d) Improving the School-Public Relations.

In each subdivision, a survey of the existing conditions as well as clearly defined recommendations for action are presented. Nothing startlingly new is brought to light; however, each area is as carefully covered as a conference of this type will allow within its limitations—in other words, the composite findings of a three-day conference will necessarily be a summation of opinion, with substantiation of facts assumed, but not corroborated.

In discussing the traits and qualities related to success in teaching, the conference group admits that the discovering and developing of "desirable" traits in an individual is essential to the improvement of the educational program, but at the same time admits the difficulty of isolating and describing such traits and the insufficiency of techniques and measurements to produce valid data. Yet they admit that it would be harmful to ignore judgment in the search for more adequate definitions and techniques. As has been suggested in recent studies the cumulative record for teachers is considered a basic essential in an evaluative situation.

Among the recommendations for colleges and universities in their contribution to the improvement of the profession is that of developing evaluative criteria for the departments or schools of Education and to provide a continuous in-service program for college faculties.

Needless to say, not all that could have been said on the subject was included. One notable omission is the continuity of service

of principals and teachers in a school. The assumption is implied (pp. 66-67) in statements concerned with adjustment of school personnel in-service; yet no school can carry on its work with major changes in personnel every year, as is the case now in many places in our country.

Stress on improving the educational program is based on the techniques used, and the application of knowledge already possessed, for example, minimizing the gap between accepted theory and school procedure in child growth and development. Definite action in educating for world peace and attacking the unsolved problems of American life are two areas that need special consideration in the school program of today. However, no thought or consideration seems to have been given by the conference members to the fact that probably there are some areas covered in our present educational program which have little or doubtful value for the students. It seems that this is one area that needs far more consideration than is thought; each group adds to an already over-crowded program; no one is bold enough to suggest subtracting.

The section on improving the school environment and teacher situation is devoted to the need for a more effective school plant, improving school and community relationships, and the factor of teaching load as related to teaching efficiency. Certainly an advanced state of thinking, especially in the latter field, is evident. A class of 25 average children, 15 atypical, and a 40-hour school week, with 15-20 hours devoted to actual instruction, is advanced. It was also pointed out that the distribution of the responsibility among the teachers should be "carefully tempered and adapted to the individual differences of the teachers" (p. 116).

The last section of the pamphlet is devoted to improving school-public relations through (a) the use of community resources in the school program, (b) utilization of school resources in community service, and (c) a cooperative study of educa-

tional needs within the community. Improved techniques of public school relations are suggested as a "vital necessity for the improvement of public education," and to realize this end an office of director of public relations is necessary for *every school system*. One might question advocating a specialist to head this program above recognizing a good school and a happy, satisfied student as a more effective agent of sound publicity for the school. Time has proved, it is thought, that a "specialist" added to the staff does not solve the problem as simply as that.

Again, it might be said that the pamphlet is well done within the limitations of a conference report, the volume is valuable in that it presents a nearly complete program in compact, yet abridged form, and it offers a quite representative cross-section view of the four major topics included. A busy reader can quickly find and assimilate the major ideas presented.

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MATHEMATICS

EUCLIDEAN GEOMETRY, ITS NATURE AND ITS USE by J. Herbert Blackhurst. Des Moines, Garner Publishing Co., 208 pp., \$2.75.

It may well be that exception may be taken to the author's metaphysics as expressed in Part I. (It has been said that matter for the metaphysicians has a maximum of obscurity.) On the other hand few, if any, would disagree with his presentation of the culture potential of geometry in the hands of an imaginative scholarly teacher. It is with this that I am concerned in the following all too brief notes.

Professor Blackhurst stresses the distinction between situational thinking as in a traffic jam, in chess, or in the traditional teaching of Euclidian geometry, and thought concerning the processes involved in such situational solutions. Thought as in-

strumental is one thing, while thought upon the nature and processes of thinking itself is a very different thing. Neglect or unawareness of this distinction has, on the part of too many teachers of geometry, lessened, to say the least, the educational value of this discipline. The product of such procedure is nothing more than the development of a specialized skill. Culture and specialized skills are by no means synonymous.

Aims are determiners of educational value; they fashion the learner's procedure. If it be the proof of a geometrical theorem he may proceed logically in his assemblage and use of data but with a minimum of educational value. Too often the teacher's aim is reproduction of a *given* whether of teacher or text. The pupil's aim in such case may be that of getting by, or high grades, or teacher approval, none of which yields genuine educational experience. Nothing new in terms of range and application of ideas, of new meanings, of insight and outlook has occurred. The pupil under such circumstances is hindered, if not blocked, rather than helped educationally. The primary function of the true teacher is not to attempt the transfer of a content from his to the learner's mind; it is rather to present subject matter as stimuli inviting thoughtful response from the pupil, encouraging him to a personal adventure in ideas. The determinant of educational value is what has happened to the learner in a session or course.

The transfer of training in the days of faculty psychology was an important problem. Now with a truer knowledge of the nature of mind and mental processes faculty psychology has been outmoded. In achieving any aim, however practical, there is a background or complex of linkages of ideas and methods of procedure which range beyond the immediate problem. To apprehend this 3-dimensional overflow beyond immediacy means the development of capacity in the learner to meet new problems in a resourceful manner. Thus it can be seen

that the old problem of the transfer of training is bypassed.

Once more, The author would enrich the teaching of geometry by introducing sketches of important propositions (Pythagorean for example) and of their authors. Further legitimate and cultural enrichment is possible by noting the wide use of geometric figures and forms in physics, engineering and throughout the whole field of the Fine Arts especially. Professor Blackhurst renders a real service in revealing and recommending these areas of resources to teachers of geometry.

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■ PSYCHOLOGY

PSYCHOLOGY OF CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE by Luella Cole and John J. B. Morgan. Rinehart and Company. 416 pp. \$3.50.

Luella Cole has assayed a synthesis of her book on adolescence and Morgan's book on child psychology. She has written a book which loosely spans the two periods of childhood and adolescence. It is a reasonable book even though in spots one yearns for more completeness of coverage of the pertinent topics and also for more of the experimental foundations for statements made. The book is written in a readable style which should be appealing to the average college student for whose use it is written.

This volume consists of twelve chapters covering the following general topics: physical growth; motor development; emotional growth; motivation; social growth; homes for children and adolescents; play and interests; intellectual growth; bright and dull children; language; growth in attitudes and behavior; and personality.

It also contains sixty-five well-selected figures, twenty-four interesting tables, and a good classified list of readings.

All in all its point of view seems to be a middle-of-the-road type, not going to extremes on the role of conditioning alone as the master key to an understanding of child behavior. For schools attempting to cover the two important fields of childhood and adolescence in a single course this book should prove quite valuable as a basic text.

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READING

THE TEACHING OF READING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL by Paul McKee, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1948, Pp. xi, p. 622, \$3.60.

Readers who are acquainted with Dr. McKee's 1934 publication on reading will find *The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School* another noteworthy contribution to the field of teaching reading. Recent research and different emphases in teaching are included in the 1948 volume. As the author states in his preface, this latest book is not a revision of his earlier publication. Discerning readers will, however, find much similarity in the two volumes in the chapters pertaining to reading-study instruction. Dr. McKee's latest volume is a cogent presentation of the total elementary school program in reading and is not a specialized treatment of any one aspect of reading.

The book is well organized. Part I is comprised of four chapters which present "The Nature of the Process of Reading." Part II contains eighteen chapters which convey the author's views concerning "A Suggested Program of Instruction in Reading." Typically, at the outset of a chapter, the author recalls his broad program of organization and then states the specific chapter purpose. At the close of each chapter, a concluding summary is provided. The introductory chapter in Part II denotes the four essential types of reading in a well-balanced program; namely, fundamentals of reading, reading-study jobs, children's

literature, and oral reading. Six chapters present the program in fundamentals of reading. Five chapters develop the necessary instructional program in reading-study work. One chapter treats of instruction in children's literature. The final chapter presents a general discussion of oral reading.

The volume is replete with detailed explanations and examples. Each important professional term is defined precisely. Numerous examples of comprehension exercises, practice work, and study guides are provided. Early use of instruction in phonics is advised. In fact, there is deviation from many authorities on this point. The necessity for individualizing reading instruction at all levels is a recurring theme of the book.

Dr. McKee's volume is based on accurate research. The over-all program of reading is in agreement with the National Committee on reading that produced the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I*, of the National Society for the Study of Education. The author states in his preface that he has not attempted to summarize all available research. He has, however, cited significant studies and has noted much recent research accomplished at the State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado.

The Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School is appropriate for use as a reference or a textbook. Experienced and inexperienced teachers will find it helpful in locating specific information on perplexing instructional problems.

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SOCIAL STUDIES

DELINQUENT ANGELS by Camille Kelley, Brown-White-Lowell Press, Kansas City, Missouri. 144 pp. \$3.50.

This is essentially a human book, by a judge who sees saving children as more important than upholding the majesty of the law in its legalistic sense. It is primarily a collection of human interest stories, each

drawn from the judge's experience, by which she weaves a philosophy of child care. It lacks the psychiatric turn so prevalent in modern writing on delinquency (although tests are used in the court's work) and relies heavily on traditional morality and homely common sense. Judge Kelley must be a sort of universal mother to all of her charges which come into conflict with society's laws in her city, Memphis. It is an amazing story of how she has helped 45,000 boys, girls and parents, socially maladjusted in some instances, with single brushes with the law in others. The title of the book indicates that while some of their *acts* are delinquent, the *persons* are not, but with proper treatment have great possibilities. In this she has a philosophy which carries on the tradition of Judge Ben Lindsey of Denver, and Father Flanagan of Boys' Town.

It is a refreshing legal autobiography of a woman, herself married, who has given herself to mothering society's waifs. She sees

a new philosophy in the juvenile courts of the future:

The juvenile court of the future, with its rainbow of promise, speaks safety and saving in life, in money and in happiness for the tired, crime-ridden and economically burdened world. Through its portals, child welfare will come into its own. Every child needs a home and parents, but when the road gets rough, he needs "A Friend in Court."

She concludes "Our greatest hope of balance and adjustment is in the motherhood and fatherhood of the world." "Mothers and fathers have the first play in the game of life." "The safest harbor is a *Home with God in it*."

Judge Kelley was the first woman south of the Mason-Dixon line to hold the position of juvenile court judge, the second in the United States. In 1942 she was one of fifty women in the United States to be awarded the Scroll of Honor by the General Federation of Women's Clubs. She has sponsored social legislation, and is a member of many social, civic and legal organizations.

Every great modern democracy is marked by racial, national, religious, and class differences. If these differences flame into hatreds of sufficient intensity, all sense of community interest disappears and society degenerates into a mêlée of warring factions.—Educational Policies Commission

Brief Browsings in Books

Socialism in Western Europe has been published recently in the Headline Series of the Foreign Policy Association from whom it may be ordered at 22 East 38th Street, New York City, for 35 cents. In its 64 pages the reader will find trenchant and startling information about the trend toward socialism in Western Europe since the World War II. "Nationalism has proved to be no fairy wand or magic carpet for the postwar world" declares the author, but since we must live with and cooperate with these countries we must understand them. This pamphlet assists in giving us that understanding.

A fundamental problem in educational administration is involved in *Your School District*, published by the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association. Jointly sponsored by this Department and the Rural Education Project of the University of Chicago, the National Commission on School District Reorganization reveals important information. The Commission finds that there are now 103,000 local units of school administration in the 48 states, ranging from 15 in Delaware to 10,000 in Illinois. As a result it sees tragic waste due to poor organization and points the way to improving the situation. Reorganization programs of seven states are described. With a more complex social organization, rapid travel and widespread communication obsolete patterns of social organization must be abandoned. The report indicates some ways in which schools may lead the way in one of the important sectors of social organization.

Educational for International Understanding with K. G. Saiyidain as author, is published by Hind Kitabs, Limited, 261-263 Hornby Road, Bombay, India at 5 Rs. Mr. Saiyidain is Educational Adviser

to the Bombay Government. His book is dedicated to Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru "who has done more than any one else to make India internationally minded." The book consists of speeches and addresses which were made outside India, in Australia under the auspices at sessions of the International Educational Conference and the Australian branch of the New Educational Fellowships; and of addresses as a member of the Preparatory Commission and first General Conference of Unesco at Paris. Among his subjects are "Internationalism in the Educational Ideology of Islam," "Teaching of History for the Promotion of Internationalism and Peace," "The Role of Unesco in Promoting International Understanding and Peace," "Assessing the Program," and "Putting Across the Unesco Ideas," and "Appraising the Results." It is an exceedingly well written book of more than 200 pages. To read the chapter, for example, on "Educational Ideology of Islam" will broaden the educator's conceptions and will reveal great possibilities for understanding between peoples of different cultures.

A unique textbook, prepared for the eighth year of the public schools is *Building Atlanta's Future*. It aims to make "Atlanta the classroom" for Atlanta pupils. This is perhaps the first time for at least thirty years that such a volume has been prepared. It exhibits the growth the city has made, its problems, its future; how the city and country are interdependent; Atlanta's regional setting; the city's resource base; its people, population changes, the workers; "a city for all people"; the economic situation; the common wealth; housing; streets and services; the social and health resources; education and recreation; the municipal government; the city's needs and

its planning commission; the problems which the city must solve; and the means which must be utilized in meeting the challenge. There are photographs and illustrations on nearly every page. It strikes one as a peculiarly good textbook for citizenship, in which the problems are applied to the pupil's own city thereby encouraging him to work at such problems as slum clearance, transportation, factories, with an eye to improvement. The philosophy of the book is in line with the modern tendency to make education a part of functioning experience. The book should be an inspiration to others. It has 305 pages and sells for \$3.50. It is published by The University of North Carolina Press and is a special project of the Division of Social Interpretation of the Institute for Research in Social Science of The University of North Carolina. An auxiliary value is that hundreds of persons participated in its preparation.

Gunnar Horn is the author of *Public School Publicity* published by Inor Publishing Company, Inc., New York. It is a readable and practical book on press and radio relations. In its more than 200 pages are given concise and workable suggestions on finding school news, writing it up, the "how" of getting stories published and getting on the air, and, in addition, suggestions for additional readings on the subjects treated. There are good suggestions for writing for the school paper and for educational magazines. In simple language the novice is given such advice as has been developed by professionals through the years. Public relations will be improved immensely by following these very practical and useful directions.

Study Hints for High School Students

by C. Gilbert Wrenn is published by the Stanford University Press, Stanford University. This sixteen-page pamphlet gives directions for improving reading ability, increasing ability to concentrate, taking notes, preparing for examinations, working conditions for study, and budgeting time. There is also a selected bibliography.

The Public Schools Question is an able discussion of some of the present problems of the English Public Schools. Because of the revolution in the schools of England due to the 1944 Act, these schools as well as others are undergoing fundamental changes in their clientele and support, though less in their underlying philosophy. There is a clear summary of the pros and cons of these privately-conducted schools and there is a closing chapter on "Christianity and Boys" which brings into focus the religious problem faced by these as other schools of England. The book of 115 pages is published by Longmans, Green and Company and sells for \$1.50.

An Oriental view on present attempts at making world peace is described in *The White Man's Peace*, a volume of 252 pages written by No-Yong Park, himself an Oriental with American training. There is a foreword by Professor Arthur N. Holcombe of Harvard University. The white man is the most belligerent and his civilization most warlike. Startling and surprising statistics are given with machine-gun rapidity as he marshals the facts upon which his argument rests. In the author's own words this volume is "an appraisal of the Western attempt to create peace, freedom, and democracy." The price is \$3.00. It is published by the Meador Publishing Company, Boston 15, Massachusetts.

THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

Behind the By-Lines

(Continued from page 4)

Beck in writing the article.

Professor G. Lester Anderson, of the College of Education, University of Minnesota, enlightens us in his *Popular and Professional Misconceptions Concerning the Teaching Profession*. In 1947 the author was an expert consultant on teacher education in the U. S. Office of Military Government for Germany. He was also co-editor of the Sixteenth Yearbook of The National Council for the Social Studies.

Do Children Know Who Are the Best Teachers? is the pertinent question asked by Louis Ada Wilson, teacher of Elementary Education in Superior State Teachers College, Superior, Wisconsin. Miss Wilson challenges the conception that the opinions of children are valid in determining the excellence or unfitness of teachers. Miss Wilson is a member of Kappa Delta Pi. She has two degrees from George Peabody College for Teachers. She taught in the Texas Public Schools.

Lloyd H. Elliott of the School of Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, challenges growing promotional policies in his *Promote All—in the Public Schools?* In the summer of 1948 he was a visiting professor at the University of Texas.

Public Education and National Security is a fervent plea for better understanding of the American School and its contribution to American life. "The public schools of America are the first line of defense of democracy. . . . Know your schools, protect your schools, actively resent criticism of them . . . and strike a blow for democracy and the security of America," concludes Leonard L. Bowman, who is Vice Principal of Santa Barbara (California) High School. He is a member of Kappa Delta Pi, a Past President of the California Teachers Association, and last year was First Vice President of the N.E.A.

A diverting article is that by Clarice Whittenburg. She uses the title *The Frontier Schoolma'am on Ranch and Homestead*. A member of Alpha Mu chapter of Kappa Delta Pi, Miss Whittenburg holds a position as Professor of Elementary Education, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming. She has contributed to various educational magazines.

Hans Margolius is the author of *Philosophy in Anecdotes*. Dr. Margolius is editor of the weekly "meditation corner" of the Miami (Florida) *Herald*. Dr. Margolius studied at the Universities of Berlin, Jena and Hamburg. For four years he was Librarian at the Public Libraries of Berlin and he was an Instructor in Philosophy at the Jewish House of Learning, Berlin.

The Little Schoolhouse is a nostalgic meditation on a one room rural school which the author Lilla Rachel Palmer attended in Southern Iowa. We have published several of her poems. Mrs. Palmer now lives in Gainesville, Florida.

Civilization and Reality is by Robert Ulrich of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. It is from an address which was delivered at the Second Century Celebration of Ripon College. It is an analysis of underlying philosophy, a description in brief outline "the relation of men to reality at the main stages of our civilization and the role which thought and learning have played in this development."

Poems for this issue are by Richard L. Loughlin, *Listening to a Steel Guitar*; Hazel Snell Schreiber, *And Forbid Them Not*; Oma Carlyle Anderson, *Our Heroes Return*; Gerhard Friedrich, *Boyhood Reveries*; Alma C. Mahan, *Twins*; and Gertrude A. Casad, *Salt Without Savor*.

The Editor



The EDUCATIONAL FORUM

November, 1948

NUMBER I



Volume XIII

PART 2

DIRECTORY NUMBER

DIRECTORY OF LAUREATE MEMBERS
NATIONAL OFFICERS
CHAPTERS AND CHAPTER OFFICERS

SILVER ANNIVERSARY EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE
OF
OMEGA CHAPTER, OHIO UNIVERSITY
THREE CHAPTERS INSTALLED
THE RECORDER-TREASURER VISITS
ENGLAND AND FRANCE

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The Educational Forum



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November, 1948

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Foreword

THIS directory of the local and national officers of Kappa Delta Pi has been prepared in the hope that it will be useful to our members. It is the Society's only publication of officers of institutional and alumni chapters. It is these officers who are responsible for the excellence of the work of the local groups and who maintain the standards of the Society. If the directory is kept for reference it is believed it will be found useful.

So far as possible the roster of officers is complete. If a complete list of those now serving has not been received recently in the General Office, data have been supplied from our earlier files. If all officers had not been chosen when copy had to go to the printers, those elected are included, in some instances only the president and counselor, are given, or the counselor only.

If changes occur in the personnel of the chapter officers during the year it will be of great assistance if the names and addresses of the newly-elected officers are furnished to the General Office promptly.

THE EDITOR

ROSTER OF KAPPA DELTA PI

THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

Executive President: WM. MCKINLEY ROBINSON,
Western Michigan College of Education, Kala-
mazoo, Michigan

Executive Second Vice President: FRANK L.
WRIGHT, Washington University, St. Louis,
Missouri

Laureate Counselor: TRUMAN LEE KELLEY,
Graduate School of Education, Harvard Uni-
versity, Cambridge, Massachusetts

Executive President Emeritus: THOMAS C. MC-
CRACKEN, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

ELECTED BY THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

Recorder-Treasurer and Editor

E. I. F. WILLIAMS, Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio

LAUREATE CHAPTER

ELECTED AT CINCINNATI, OHIO
FEBRUARY 23, 1925

Werrett Wallace Charters, Professor Emeritus of
Education, Ohio State University, Columbus,
Ohio.

John Dewey, Professor Emeritus of Philosophy,
Columbia University, New York, New York

Frank Pierrepont Graves, President of the Uni-
versity of the State of New York and Com-
missioner of Education (Retired), Albany,
New York

Mrs. Edwin Avery Parks (nee Frances Fenton
Bernard), Consulting Psychologist, William A.
White Institute of Psychiatry, New York

Edward Lee Thorndike, Professor Emeritus of
Education, Teachers College, Columbia Uni-
versity, New York, New York

ELECTED AT WASHINGTON, D.C.
FEBRUARY 25-26, 1926

Frank Washington Ballou (retired), Superintend-
ent of Schools, Washington, D.C.

Lewis Madison Terman, Professor Emeritus of
Psychology, Leland Stanford University, Cali-
fornia

ELECTED AT BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS
FEBRUARY 28, 1928

Payson Smith, Acting Dean, School of Education,
University of Maine, Orono, Maine

Executive First Vice President: KATHERINE
VICKERY, Alabama College, Montevallo, Ala-
bama

Executive Counselor: KENNETH F. PERRY, Colo-
rado State College of Education, Greeley, Colo-
rado

Laureate Counselor: TRUMAN LEE KELLEY,
Graduate School of Education, Harvard Uni-
versity, Cambridge, Massachusetts

Executive President Emeritus: THOMAS C. MC-
CRACKEN, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

ELECTED AT CLEVELAND, OHIO
FEBRUARY 26, 1929

William Heard Kilpatrick, Professor Emeritus
of Education, Teachers College, Columbia
University, New York, New York

ELECTED AT DETROIT, MICHIGAN
FEBRUARY 24, 1931

Dorothy Canfield Fisher, Arlington, Vermont

ELECTED AT WASHINGTON, D.C.
FEBRUARY 23, 1932

Truman Lee Kelley, Professor of Education,
Graduate School of Education, Harvard Uni-
versity, Cambridge, Massachusetts

ELECTED AT MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA
FEBRUARY 7, 1933

James R. Angell, President Emeritus, Yale Uni-
versity, New Haven, Connecticut; Educational
Counselor, National Broadcasting Company

ELECTED AT CLEVELAND, OHIO
FEBRUARY 27, 1934

Henry W. Holmes, Professor of Education and
Chairman of the University Committee on
Educational Relations, Harvard University,
Cambridge, Massachusetts

ELECTED AT ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI
FEBRUARY 25, 1936

Boyd H. Bode, Professor Emeritus of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
Walter Damrosch, Musical Counsel, National Broadcasting Company, New York, New York
Frank N. Freeman, Dean of School of Education, University of California, Berkeley, California

ELECTED AT ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY
FEBRUARY 28, 1938

Abraham Flexner, Director Emeritus, Institute for Advanced Study, Princeton, New Jersey

ELECTED AT CLEVELAND, OHIO
FEBRUARY 28, 1939

Thomas H. Briggs, Professor Emeritus of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

I. L. Kandel, Professor Emeritus of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York, and Editor of *School and Society*

ELECTED AT ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI
FEBRUARY 27, 1940

Guy Stanton Ford, Executive Secretary, American Historical Association, Library of Congress Annex, Washington, D.C.

George Drayton Strayer, Professor Emeritus of Education and Director, Division of Field Studies, Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

ELECTED AT ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY
FEBRUARY 25, 1941

Albert S. Cook, State Superintendent of Schools (Retired), Baltimore, Maryland

ELECTED AT SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA
FEBRUARY 24, 1942

James B. Conant, President of Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

George F. Zook, President of the American Council of Education, Washington, D.C.

ELECTED AT ATHENS, OHIO
APRIL 10, 1943

Stephen P. Duggan, Director Emeritus of the Institute of International Education, New York, New York

Frank P. Graham, President of the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina

ELECTED AT NEW YORK, NEW YORK
FEBRUARY 22, 1944

Florence E. Allen, Judge of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Sixth District (Kentucky, Michigan, Ohio, and Tennessee), Cleveland, Ohio

George S. Counts, Professor of Education and Director of the Division of Foundations of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

George D. Stoddard, President of the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

John W. Withers, Dean Emeritus of the School of Education, New York University, New York, New York

ELECTED AT CINCINNATI, OHIO
MARCH 17, 1945

L. Hyde Bailey, Professor Emeritus of Horticulture of Cornell University, Director of Bailey Hortorium, Ithaca, New York
Edward C. Elliott, President Emeritus of Purdue University

E. S. Evenden, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, Chairman of the Committee on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, New York, New York

Carl E. Seashore, Dean Emeritus of the Graduate School of the University of Iowa, The Graduate College, The State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

ELECTED AT MILWAUKEE, WISCONSIN
MARCH 11, 1946

Frank E. Baker, President Emeritus, Milwaukee State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Edmund E. Day, President, Cornell University Ithaca, New York and Trustee of Tuskegee Institute

Robert M. Hutchins, Chancellor, The University of Chicago, Member of the Board of Directors of Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc., University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
William F. Russell, Dean, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

ELECTED AT ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY
MARCH 3, 1947

Arthur H. Compton, Chancellor, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri

Ernest Horn, Director, University Elementary School and Professor of Education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

Alexander J. Stoddard, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

ELECTED AT ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY,
FEBRUARY 25, 1948

O. C. Carmichael, President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, New York, New York

Mildred McAfee Horton, President of Wellesley College, Wellesley, Massachusetts

J. W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C.

DECEASED MEMBERS OF THE LAUREATE CHAPTER

- Grace Abbott, formerly Professor of Public Welfare Administration, University of Chicago. Elected February 25, 1936; deceased June 19, 1939.
- Sir John Adams, formerly Professor Emeritus of Education, University of London, England. Elected February 25, 1926; deceased September 29, 1934.
- Jane Addams, formerly of Hull House, Chicago, Illinois. Elected February 23, 1932; deceased May 21, 1935.
- Edwin Anderson Alderman, formerly President of the University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia. Elected February 25, 1926; deceased April 19, 1931.
- William C. Bagley, formerly Editor, *School and Society*, and Professor of Education Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. Elected February 28, 1928; deceased July 1, 1946.
- Charles A. Beard, formerly Historian, New Milford, Connecticut. Elected February 23, 1937; deceased September 1, 1948.
- Martha Berry, formerly Director of Berry Schools, Mt. Berry, Georgia. Elected February 25, 1941; deceased February 27, 1942.
- George W. Carver, Founder of the George Washington Carver Foundation, Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Alabama. Elected February 24, 1942; deceased January 5, 1943.
- J. McKeen Cattell, formerly Professor of Psychology at the University of Pennsylvania and Columbia University; Editor, *Science* and other publications. Elected February 23, 1932; deceased January 20, 1940.
- Lotus D. Coffman, formerly President of the University of Minnesota. Elected February 28, 1928; deceased September 22, 1938.
- Ellwood Patterson Cubberley, formerly Dean of School of Education, Leland Stanford University, Stanford University, California. Elected February 23, 1925; deceased September 14, 1941.
- Susan Miller Dorsey, formerly Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California. Elected February 25-26, 1926; deceased February 5, 1946.
- John Huston Finley, formerly Editor, *New York Times*. Elected February 20, 1935; deceased March 13, 1940.
- Paul Henry Hanus, formerly Dean, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Elected February 25, 1926; deceased December 14, 1941.
- Patty Smith Hill, formerly Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. Elected February 28, 1938; deceased May 25, 1946.
- H. H. Horne, formerly Professor of Education, New York University, New York, New York. Elected April 10, 1943; deceased August 16, 1946.
- W. A. Jessup, formerly President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Carnegie Corporation, New York, New York. Elected April 10, 1943; deceased July 5, 1944.
- George Johnson, formerly Head of the Department of Education, Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C. Elected February 24, 1942; deceased June 5, 1944.
- Charles Hubbard Judd, formerly Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. Elected February 23, 1925; deceased July 18, 1946.
- Frederick P. Keppel, formerly Educational Advisor and President of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, New York, New York. Elected February 24, 1942; deceased September 8, 1943.
- Paul Monroe, formerly Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; President World Federation of Education Association Washington, D.C. Elected March 3, 1927; deceased December 6, 1947.
- William A. Neilson, formerly President of Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts. Elected February 25, 1941; deceased February 13, 1946.
- William Lyon Phelps, formerly Professor of Literature, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. Elected February 28, 1939; deceased August 21, 1943.
- James Earl Russell, formerly Professor of Education and Dean, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. Elected February 25-26, 1926; deceased November 3, 1945.
- David Eugene Smith, formerly Professor of Mathematics, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. Elected February 24, 1936; deceased July 29, 1944.
- Henry Suzzallo, formerly President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Elected March 3, 1927; deceased September 25, 1933.
- Helen Bradford Thompson Woolley, formerly of Northville, New Milford, Connecticut. Elected February 23, 1925; deceased December 24, 1947.
- Mary E. Woolley, formerly President, Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts. Elected February 27, 1934; deceased September 5, 1947.

INSTITUTIONAL CHAPTERS

Alpha

University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois
(March 8, 1911)

President: Viola H. Dueringer, 1009 S. Locust St., Champaign, Ill.
Vice-president: Kathryn Colyer, 112 W. Hill St., Champaign, Ill.
Corresponding Secretary: Clara Shinker, 410 N. Garfield St., Champaign, Ill.
Treasurer: Mrs. Mary Virginia McDougle, 806 Iowa St., Urbana, Ill.
Historian-Reporter: Jess Beard, 106 S. 4th St., Champaign, Ill.
Counselor: Liesette McHarry, 703 Vermont St., Urbana, Ill.
Recording Secretary: Mrs. E. H. Mellon, 601 W. John St., Champaign, Ill.

Beta

University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado
(March 30, 1912)

President: Herman J. Klösepfer, 956 Main St., Boulder, Colo.
Vice-president: Kathryn Hoffmann, 1808 9th Ave., Boulder, Colo.
Secretary: Mrs. Alma Thiese, 989 Green Mountain Ave., Boulder, Colo.
Treasurer: Mrs. Helen Nelson, 985 10th St., Boulder, Colo.
Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Minnie Berueffy, 1206 High St., Boulder, Colo.
Counselor: Marie A. Mehl, 1030½ 12th St., Boulder, Colo.

Gamma

University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma
(April 23, 1915)

President: Everett Harvell, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
Vice-president: Sarah Hovis, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
Secretary: Chas. L. Caldwell, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
Treasurer: Chas. L. Caldwell, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
Historian-Reporter: Chas. L. Caldwell, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
Counselor: Harry Huffman, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.

Delta

University of Texas, Austin, Texas
(May 30, 1916)

Charter withdrawn, February 24, 1932.

Epsilon

Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa
(February 23, 1917)

President: James G. Hudson, 1447 Henderson, Des Moines, Iowa.
Vice-president: Charles R. Williams, Fort Des Moines, Iowa.
Secretary: Lucile Sams, 1132 19th St., Des Moines, Iowa.
Treasurer: Emma J. Scott, c/o Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.
Historian-Reporter: Mitzi Beckham, 1450 Dean Ave., Des Moines, Iowa.
Counselor: John H. Hutchinson, c/o Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.

Zeta

University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio
(June 13, 1917)

President: Mrs. Ruth Beckman, 3527 Vine St., Cincinnati 20, Ohio.
Vice-president: Carolyn Blank, 2438 Beechmont Ave., Cincinnati 30, Ohio.
Recording Secretary: Jane Marcum, 3603 Cheviot Ave., Cincinnati 11, Ohio.
Corresponding Secretary: Ruth A. Hargitt, 11 Glenmary Ave., Cincinnati 20, Ohio.
Treasurer: John Stevenson, RR. 1, Box 104, Cincinnati 27, Ohio.
Historian-Reporter: Elaine Radloff, 4118 Clubview Dr., Cincinnati, Ohio.
Counselor: Margaret McKim, 274 Senator Pl., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Eta

Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana
(June 11, 1919)

President: Lyle Cameron, 801 Russell St., West Lafayette, Ind.
Vice-president: Mrs. Ann Thompson, R.R. 10, c/o John Deck, West Lafayette, Ind.

Secretary: Libby Mohr, 103 Russell, West Lafayette, Ind.

Treasurer: Ruth Childs, Bunker Hill, I, West Lafayette, Ind.

Historian-Reporter: Dick Comly, 1407 N. Grant, West Lafayette, Ind.

Counselor: R. R. Ryder, Division of Education and Applied Psychology, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.

Theta

Colorado State College of Education,
Greeley, Colorado
(June 13, 1920)

Counselor: Kenneth F. Perry, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colo.

Iota

Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia,
Emporia, Kansas
(March 15, 1920)

President: Iris Helmley, 1326 Highland St., Emporia, Kan.

Vice-president: Doris Dyck, Morse Hall, Emporia, Kan.

Secretary: Junivee Unruh, Morse Hall, Emporia, Kan.

Treasurer: Stanley Martin, 601 Walnut St., Emporia, Kan.

Historian-Reporter: Lola Viets, 1230 Market St., Emporia, Kan.

Counselor: Don E. Davis, 1401 Merchant St., Emporia, Kan.

Sponsor: H. E. Schrammel, 1606 West St., Emporia, Kan.

Kappa

Teachers College, Columbia University,
New York 27, New York
(August 7, 1920)

President: Verna Dieckman, 1130 Amsterdam Ave., New York 27, N.Y.

Vice-president: Robert Grove, 40 W. 107th St., Shanks Village, Orangeburg, N.Y.

Secretary: Esther Larson, 411 W. 116th St., New York 27, N.Y.

Treasurer: Earl Waller, 6 W. 705th St., Shanks Village, Orangeburg, N.Y.

Historian-Reporter: Robert Leeper, Room 120, Furnald Hall, Columbia University, New York 27, N.Y.

Counselor: Florence B. Stratemeyer, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

Lambda

Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma
(April 16, 1921)

President: Madeline Russell, 1620 College Ave., Stillwater, Okla.

Vice-president: William H. Lundy, 307 LaRue Midi, Veterans Village, Stillwater, Okla.

Secretary: Pat Carpenter, 158 Willard Hall, A. & M. College, Stillwater, Okla.

Treasurer: Clarence M. Pruitt, 304 Walnut St., Stillwater, Okla.

Historian-Reporter: Edwin Vineyard, 8 Payne, Veterans Village, Stillwater, Okla.

Counselor: Margaret Hampel, 204 Morrill Hall, A. & M. College, Stillwater, Okla.

Mu

Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois
(March 4, 1922)

President: Harmon Peaco, 501 S. University St., Normal, Ill.

Vice-president: Vivian Louise Krause, 205 N. Fell Ave., Normal, Ill.

Secretary: Lois Eileen Smith, 402 S. School St., Normal, Ill.

Treasurer: Charles Corbin Yahr, 304 W. Locust St., Normal, Ill.

Counselor: H. H. Schroeder, Dean Emeritus, 1004 Broadway, Normal, Ill.

Nu

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
(April 20, 1922)

President: Ruth Stoeppelwerth, 210 North Hall, Oxford, Ohio.

Vice-president: James Carson, 103 Stoddard Hall, Oxford, Ohio.

Secretary: Nancy McDermott, 218 North Hall, Oxford, Ohio.

Treasurer: Barbara Hall, 228 North Hall, Oxford, Ohio.

Historian-Reporter: Robert Daniels, 103 Stoddard Hall, Oxford, Ohio.

Counselor: Annabel Cathcart, 22 Tallawanda Rd., Oxford, Ohio.

Associate Counselor: Margaret Phillips, 20 E. Walnut St., Oxford, Ohio.

Social Chairman: Joyce Gabel, North Hall, Oxford, Ohio.

Xi

University of Alabama, College of Education,
University, Alabama
(May 16, 1922)

President: Mrs. Virginia Keel, Box 1904, University of Alabama, University, Ala.
Vice-president: Robert C. Odom, Box 3155, University of Alabama, University, Ala.
Secretary: Sarah Ann Stewart, Box 1945, University of Alabama, University, Ala.
Treasurer: Mrs. Pauline M. Foster, Box 2242, University of Alabama, University, Ala.
Historian-Reporter: Louise Wallace, General Delivery, University of Alabama, University, Ala.
Counselor: Frederick Westover, Box 1553, University of Alabama, University, Ala.

Rho

Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg,
Missouri
(October 28, 1922)

President: Patricia Stewart, 522 S. College St., Warrensburg, Mo.
Vice-president: Ruth Bergman, 115 Grover St., Warrensburg, Mo.
Corresponding Secretary: Mildred Fredde, Yeater Hall, Warrensburg, Mo.
Recording Secretary: Wilhelmina Freytag, 522 S. College St., Warrensburg, Mo.
Treasurer: A. B. Spears, 515 S. Washington St., Warrensburg, Mo.
Historian-Reporter: Edward Lowry, 121 Broad St., Warrensburg, Mo.
Counselor: Pauline A. Humphreys, 137 Grover St., Warrensburg, Mo.

Omicron

Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen,
South Dakota
(June 3, 1922)

President: June Jones, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S.D.
Vice-president: Myrna Clemensen, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S.D.
Secretary: Esther Robertson, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S.D.
Treasurer: John Bornong, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S.D.
Counselor: J. W. Thomas, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S.D.

Sigma .

Pennsylvania State College, State College,
Pennsylvania
(January 11, 1932)

Charter withdrawn February 26, 1936.

Tau

Northeast Missouri Teachers College, Kirksville,
Missouri
(February 24, 1923)

Pi

Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti,
Michigan
(June 20, 1922)

President: Robert E. Laubach, Munson Hall, Room 213, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Vice-president: Marjorie Martin, Goodison Hall, Room 422, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Secretary: Phyllis Bond, 1205 Whittier Rd., Ypsilanti, Mich.
Treasurer: John White, Munson Hall, Room 101, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Historian-Reporter: Jessie Drake, King Hall, Room 425, Ypsilanti, Mich.
Counselor: Carl Erikson, 101 Wallace Blvd., Ypsilanti, Mich.

Upsilon

University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida
(June 23, 1923).

President: Henry L. Ashmore, 210 N. Smith St., Gainesville, Fla.
Vice-president: Mrs. Alice Macartha, 444 W. Arlington, Gainesville, Fla.

Secretary: Wayne R. Tappan, 1422 W. Arlington, Gainesville, Fla.
Treasurer: James W. Crews, Apt. 217-T, Flavet 3, Gainesville, Fla.
Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Maud C. Watkins, 607 S. 7th, Gainesville, Fla.
Counselor: A. R. Mead, 225 College Ct., Gainesville, Fla.
Assistant Counselor: Lillian Maguire, Room 218 P. K. Yonge Bldg., Gainesville, Fla.

Phi

Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia
(June 7, 1923)
President: Clara B. Hall, Marshall College, Huntington, W.Va.
First Vice-president: Otis G. Wilson, 619 South Ter., Huntington, W.Va.
Second Vice-president: Archie Griffith, Allen Ct., Huntington, W.Va.
Secretary: Mrs. Martha Zelnack, 203½ Gallaher St., Huntington, W.Va.
Treasurer: Lawrence Nuzam, Marshall Laboratory School, Huntington, W.Va.
Historian-Recorder: Virginia Foulk, Marshall College, Huntington, W.Va.
Counselor: Roy C. Woods, Marshall College, Huntington, W. Va.

Chi

Western State College, Gunnison, Colorado
(July 14, 1923)
President: Calvin W. Gower, Box 328, Gunnison, Colo.
Vice-president: Eva Christoff, Chipeta Hall, Gunnison, Colo.
Secretary: Gladys Willits, Highland Village, Gunnison, Colo.
Treasurer: Herbert J. Dorricott, College Apts., Gunnison, Colo.
Historian-Reporter: Margaret McPherson, Chipeta Hall, Gunnison, Colo.
Counselor: Carl A. Helmecke, 601 N. Wisconsin St., Gunnison, Colo.

Psi

Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa
(August 7, 1923)
President: Robert C. Gamm, 2304 Walnut St., Cedar Falls, Iowa.
Vice-president: William Waack, 213 Baker Hall, I.S.T.C., Cedar Falls, Iowa.
Secretary: (Vacant)

Treasurer: Wilbur Krauth, 311 Baker Hall, I.S.T.C., Cedar Falls, Iowa.
Historian-Reporter: None—work done by Counselor and Secretary.
Counselor: John W. Charles, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Omega

Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
(August 7, 1923)

President: Milton Brown, Men's Dormitory, Athens, Ohio.
Vice-president: Gaynelle Baker, Howard Hall, Athens, Ohio.
Recording Secretary: Margaret Redlin, 10 S. College St., Athens, Ohio.
Treasurer: Irma E. Voigt, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.
Historian-Reporter: Marian Malham, 101 S. Court St., Athens, Ohio.
Counselor: Ann E. Mumma, Box 388, Athens, Ohio.

Alpha Alpha

Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio
(November 10, 1923)

President: Harry Nest, 133 N. Washington St., Delaware, Ohio.
Vice-president: Mary E. Hagemeyer, Stuyvesant Hall, Delaware, Ohio.
Secretary: Lois Martin, Monnett Hall, Delaware, Ohio.
Treasurer: Frances Wright Hoffmann, Monnett Hall, Delaware, Ohio.
Historian-Reporter: Peggy Crawford, Monnett Hall, Delaware, Ohio.
Social Chairman: Dorothy Curtis, Monnett Hall, Delaware, Ohio.
Counselor: Martha Dallmann, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.

Alpha Beta

University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas
(February 19, 1924)

President: Ralph Eubanks, U. of A. Post Office, Fayetteville, Ark.
Vice-president: William R. Thomas, U. of A. Post Office, Fayetteville, Ark.
Secretary: Betty DeWitt, U. of A. Post Office, Fayetteville, Ark.
Treasurer: Bernice Karnes, U. of A. Math Dept., Fayetteville, Ark.
Counselor: Helen Graham, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Ark.

Alpha Gamma

**University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky
(May 19, 1924)**

President: Madie Lee Walker, 475 W. Second St., Lexington, Ky.

Vice-president: Marie Haick, Jewell Hall, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

Secretary: Louise Willson, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

Treasurer: E. F. Hartford, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

Historian-Reporter: Counselor serves.

Counselor: Margaret Bell Humphreys, College of Commerce, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

Alpha Delta

**Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida
(January 12, 1925)**

President: Mrs. Marian W. Black, 740 W. Pensacola, Tallahassee, Fla.

Vice-president: Dale Barton, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Fla.

Treasurer: Edna Parker, 740 W. Pensacola, Tallahassee, Fla.

Counselor: M. R. Hinson, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Fla.

Alpha Epsilon

**Western Illinois State College, Macomb, Illinois
(February 27, 1925)**

President: Kenneth Wolf, 413 W. Wheeler St., Macomb, Ill.

Vice-president: Joan Behrens, Grote Hall, Macomb, Ill.

Secretary: Marjorie Butcher, R.R. No. 4, Macomb, Ill.

Treasurer: Gladys Pont, Grote Hall, Macomb, Ill.

Historian-Reporter: Lauramarie Wyatt, Grote Hall, Macomb, Ill.

Counselor: J. L. Archer, Western Illinois State College, Macomb, Ill. Home: 230 N. Ward St., Macomb, Ill.

Alpha Zeta

**Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg,
Kansas
(March 14, 1925)**

President: Raymond J. Young, 103 E. Cleveland, Pittsburg, Kan.

Vice-president: Jewell Bridges, Willard Hall, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kan.

Secretary: Belle Provorse, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kan.

Treasurer: Norval I. Phillips, R.R. 4, Pittsburg, Kan.

Historian-Reporter: Mary Dell Morrison, Willard Hall, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kan.

Counselor: Eulalia E. Roseberry, 1610 S. Olive, Pittsburg, Kan.

Alpha Eta

**Southeast Missouri State College, Cape Girardeau, Missouri
(April 17, 1925)**

President: Leatha E. Williams, Albert Hall, State College, Cape Girardeau, Mo.

Vice-president: Rupert A. Klaus, Cheney Hall, State College, Cape Girardeau, Mo.

Secretary: Calvin E. Harbin, 421 N. Pacific St., Cape Girardeau, Mo.

Treasurer-Recorder: Esther L. Knuehans, State College, Cape Girardeau, Mo.

Historian-Reporter: Jean West, Leming Hall, State College, Cape Girardeau, Mo.

Counselor: S. A. Kruse, State College, Cape Girardeau, Mo.

Alpha Theta

**University of Akron, Akron 4, Ohio
(April 24, 1925)**

President: Ralph T. Marshall, 2223 19th St., Akron 14, Ohio.

Vice-president: John J. Pottinger, 425 3rd St., Barberton, Ohio.

Secretary: Irene Pavlich, 423 Cypress Ave., Akron 1, Ohio.

Treasurer: Mary Dague, 948 Peerless Ave., Akron 2, Ohio.

Historian-Reporter: William Filey, 1127 Winston Ave., Akron 2, Ohio.

Counselor: Mabel M. Riedinger, 173 Marvin Ave., Akron 2, Ohio.

Alpha Iota

**North Texas State Teachers College,
Denton, Texas
(January 23, 1926)**

President: Robert Bender, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Vice-president: O. L. Davis, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Recording Secretary: Don Swadley, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Corresponding Secretary: Betty Bender, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Treasurer: Mary Englehart, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Historian-Reporter: Ruth Holman, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Counselor: L. W. Newton, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.

Alpha Kappa

Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana
(February 12, 1926)

President: Miriam Burridge, Women's Residence Hall, I.S.T.C., Terre Haute, Ind.
Vice-president: Donald Conrad, Apt. 28-D, S.V.H.A., Terre Haute, Ind.
Secretary: Rebecca Shedd, 2045 N. 10th St., Terre Haute, Ind.
Treasurer: Fred E. Brengle, Dept. Social Studies, I.S.T.C., Terre Haute, Ind.
Historian-Reporter: Donald McCollum, R.R. 2, Brazil, Ind.
Counselor: Lloyd N. Smith, Dept. Educ., Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.

Alpha Lambda

University of Denver, Denver, Colorado
(May 22, 1926)

President: Mrs. Virginia Stearns, 1615 Madison, Denver 6, Colo.
First Vice-president: Mary Rose O'Brien, 1465 Steele, Denver 6, Colo.
Second Vice-president: Mary Louise Flood, 920 S. William St., Denver, Colo.
Corresponding Secretary: Mrs. Isabel M. St. John, 2327 E. Evans St., Denver, Colo.
Recording Secretary: Orthea Gebhart, 5090 S. Ogden St., Denver, Colo.
Treasurer: Mrs. Gus Profit, 1859 S. Humboldt St., Denver 10, Colo.
Historian-Reporter: Lorene Ethridge, 3447 Clayton St., Denver, Colo.
Counselor: Alberta Munkres, 1930 E. Evans St., Denver 10, Colo.
Student Representative: Virginia Wise, 2525 Cherry St., Denver, Colo.
Alumni Representative: Bertha Baerresen, 2737 S. Downing St., Englewood, Colo.

Alpha Mu

University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming
(May 25, 1926)

President: Jessie Mae Halsted, 1216 Ivinston Ave., Laramie, Wyo.
First Vice-president: Frances Ready, 203 S. 9th St., Laramie, Wyo.
Second Vice-president: Gertrude Boyd, 709 Ivinston Ave., Laramie, Wyo.
Secretary: Glennie Bacon, 601 Ivinston Ave., Laramie, Wyo.
Treasurer: Clarence Samford, 168 N. 9th St., Laramie, Wyo.
Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Joyce Black Reaser, 615 Flint St., Laramie, Wyo.
Counselor: Ruth E. Campbell, 1314 Ivinston Ave., Laramie, Ave.

Alpha Nu

Chico State College, Chico, California
(May 28, 1926)

President: Jack Hocking, Chico State College, Chico, Calif.
Vice-president: Harry Silberman, Chico State College, Chico, Calif.
Secretary: Dorothy Dickenson, Chico State College, Chico, Calif.
Treasurer: Lewis Hunt, Chico State College, Chico, Calif.
Historian-Reporter: Pat Matthews, Chico State College, Chico, Calif.
Counselor: Philip M. Illof, Chico State College, Chico, Calif.

Alpha Xi

College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia
(April 22, 1927)

Counselor: Kenneth Cleeton, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.

Alpha Omicron

Franklin College, Franklin, Indiana
(May 12, 1927)

Charter withdrawn.

Alpha Pi

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee
(May 14, 1927)

President: Edward F. Shumard, Box 203, Peabody College, Nashville 4, Tenn.
Vice-president: Mrs. T. K. Martin, Box 203, Peabody College, Nashville 4, Tenn.
Counselor: A. Edwin Anderson, Box 203, Peabody College, Nashville 4, Tenn.

Alpha Rho

University of California, Santa Barbara College, Santa Barbara, California
(May 20, 1927)

President: Robert Casier, 716 W. Valerio St., Santa Barbara, Calif.
Vice-president: June Lord, 435 E. Valerio St., Santa Barbara, Calif.
Secretary: Carmela Daniels, 513 E. Pedregosa, Santa Barbara, Calif.
Treasurer: David Lawton, 217 W. Anapamu, Santa Barbara, Calif.
Historian-Reporter: Margaret Ann Wells, 1766 Prospect, Santa Barbara, Calif.
Counselor: Glenn Durlinger, 1820 Olive Ave., Santa Barbara, Calif.

Alpha Sigma

San Diego State College, San Diego, California
(May 21, 1927)

President: Betty M. McGovern, 1815 Mission Cliffs Dr., San Diego 3, Calif.

Vice-president: Howard Roche, 1413 Golden Gate Dr., San Diego 3, Calif.

Secretary: Norma Ramirez, 4407 Van Dyke Ave., San Diego 5, Calif.

Treasurer: Eugene Wickstrom, 4715 51st St., San Diego 5, Calif.

Historian-Reporter: Frank Cole, 3431 Congress St., San Diego 10, Calif.

Counselor: Katherine E. Corbett, 3845 Falcon St., San Diego 3, Calif.

Corresponding Secretary: Margaret Jessup, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Treasurer: Margaret Brown Whitney, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Historian: Jeanne Snowden, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Reporter: Margaret Hurst, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Counselor: Alfred K. Eagle, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Co-Counselor: Francis R. Grove, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Alpha Tau

Duke University, Durham, North Carolina
(May 27, 1927)

President: Lew W. Hennen, 1610 Plymouth Rd., Durham, N.C.

Vice-president: Jeanne McPherson, College Station, Durham, N.C.

Secretary: Mrs. Mary E. Gale, Needham Broughton High School, Raleigh, N.C.

Treasurer: Laurie Virginia Izlar, College Station, Durham, N.C.

Counselor: A. M. Proctor, College Station, Durham, N.C.

Alpha Upsilon

**West Virginia University, Morgantown,
West Virginia**
(July 21, 1927)

Counselor: Grace Griffin, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W.Va.

Alpha Phi

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama
(January 17, 1928)

President: Miriam Rhyne, Dormitory 2, Auburn, Ala.

Counselor: Robert Sutton, 211 Samford Hall, Auburn, Ala.

Alpha Chi

Madison College, Harrisonburg, Virginia
(January 30, 1928)

President: Mary Louise Albrittain, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Vice-president: Yvonne Davis, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Recording Secretary: Nancy Bryant, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

Alpha Psi

Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio
(February 11, 1928)

President: Robert Aldrich, 114 Hedges St., Apartment P., Tiffin, Ohio

Vice-president: Richard Harbeck, 324 Main St., Tiffin, Ohio.

Secretary: Melba Bussard, Founders Hall, Tiffin, Ohio.

Treasurer: Artha Ahart, Williard Hall, Tiffin, Ohio.

Historian-Reporter: Dolores Dommer, France Hall, Tiffin, Ohio.

Counselor: E. I. F. Williams, 277 E. Perry St., Tiffin, Ohio.

Alpha Omega

Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon
(February 15, 1928)

President: Arlen W. Wells, Country Club Heights, Corvallis, Ore.

Vice-president: Rose Marie See, 340 N. 26th St., Corvallis, Ore.

Secretary: Jonita Vivian Lorentzen, 109 N. and St., Apt. No. 9, Corvallis, Ore.

Treasurer: Helen Irene Paulson Rinearson (Mrs. Leonard E. Rinearson), 345 S. 14th St., Corvallis, Ore.

Historian-Reporter: Lamont A. Klick, P. O. Box 222, Corvallis, Ore.

Counselor: Herbert R. Laslett, Education Hall 215, Oregon State College, Corvallis, Ore.

Beta Alpha

San Jose State College, San Jose, California
(February 21, 1948)

President: Joe C. DeWitt, Apt. 39 Spartan City, S. 7th St., San Jose, Calif.

Vice-president: Harold Gluth, Apt. 72 Spartan City, San Jose, Calif.

Secretary: Angie Perry, Rt. 1, Box 158, Sunnyvale, Calif.

Treasurer: Harry Jensen, San Jose State College, San Jose, Calif.

Historian-Reporter: Catherine Gamble, 704 Shannock Dr., Campbell, Calif.
Counselor: Lillian Billington, San Jose State College, San Jose, Calif.

Beta Beta

University of New Hampshire, Durham,
New Hampshire
(February 23, 1928)

President: Donald K. Adams, 180 Shore Rd., Ogunquit, Me.
Vice-president: Richard F. Lopes, 364 Circuit Rd., Portsmouth, N.H.
Secretary: Marion F. Quimby, Newton, N.H.
R.F.D. Plaistow.
Treasurer: Doris E. Tyrell, Assoc. Professor, Secretarial Studies, University of New Hampshire, Durham, N.H.
Historian-Reporter: Florence E. Flint, Smith Hall, University of New Hampshire, Durham, N.H.
Counselor: T. O. Marshall, Chairman Department of Education, University of New Hampshire, Durham, N.H.

Beta Gamma

Indiana State Teachers College, Indiana
Pennsylvania
(May 14, 1928)

President: Jane McFarland, 924 Wayne Ave., Indiana, Pa.
Vice-president: George Walochik, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa.
Secretary: Armide Gamberoni, 236 John Sutton Hall, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa.
Treasurer: Peggy Cox, 203 John Sutton Hall, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa.
Historian-Reporter: John Strandburg, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa.
Counselor: S. Trevor Hadley, Dept. of Education, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa.

Beta Delta

Southeastern State College, Durant, Oklahoma
(May 14, 1928)

President: E. M. Haggard, Southeastern State College, Durant, Okla.
Vice-president: Allan Amend, Southeastern State College, Durant, Okla.
Secretary: Ruth West, Southeastern State College, Durant, Okla.
Treasurer: Bertha Byrns, Southeastern State College, Durant, Okla.
Counselor: M. K. Fort, Southeastern State College, Durant, Okla.

Beta Epsilon

State Teachers College, Farmville, Virginia
(May 21, 1928)

President: Jean Thomasson, Box 122, State Teachers College, Farmville, Va.
Vice-president: Laura Jean Comerford, Box 31, State Teachers College, Farmville, Va.
Treasurer: Dorothy Daniel, Box 65, State Teachers College, Farmville, Va.
Historian-Reporter: Sara Lee Rawles, Box 165, State Teachers College, Farmville, Va.
Counselor: Ethel Sutherland, State Teachers College, Farmville, Va.

Beta Zeta

University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho
(June 1, 1928)

President: C. William Eimers, Box 95 University Station, Moscow, Idaho.
Vice-president: Freda Sparrow Eyestone, 513 E. 6th St., Moscow, Idaho.
Secretary: Gwendolyn Waltman, Delta Gamma House, Moscow, Idaho.
Treasurer: Ralph Paasch, 443 Veatch St., Moscow, Idaho.
Historian-Reporter: C. William Eimers, Box 95 Univ. Station, Moscow, Idaho.
Counselor: J. F. Weltzin, School of Education, University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho.

Beta Eta

Oklahoma Baptist University, Shawnee, Oklahoma
(June 8, 1928)

President: Robert Lee Haggard, Tecumseh, Okla.
Vice-president: Mrs. Ernestine Leverett, 1015 N. Beard, Shawnee, Okla.
Secretary: Mary Ellen Bridges, Oklahoma Baptist University, Shawnee, Okla.
Treasurer: Mary Ellen Bridges, Oklahoma Baptist University, Shawnee, Okla.
Historian-Reporter: Evelyn Hurst, 134 S. Center, Shawnee, Okla.
Counselor: Lena E. Smock, 531 W. University, Shawnee, Okla.

Beta Theta

Oshkosh State Teachers College, Oshkosh, Wisconsin
(January 26, 1929)

President: William R. Hughes, 973 Main St., Oshkosh, Wis.
Vice-president: Jean Goodwin, 28 Boyd St., Oshkosh, Wis.
Secretary: Betty Jean Bender, 615 Algoma Blvd., Oshkosh, Wis.
Treasurer: Meriel Gralow, 477 Algoma Blvd., Oshkosh, Wis.

Historian-Reporter: Duane Ciamoski, R.F.D. 1,
Berlin, Wis.
Counselor: Everett G. Pyle, 434 Elmwood Ave.,
Oshkosh, Wis.

Beta Iota

Western Michigan College of Education,
Kalamazoo, Michigan
(February 2, 1929)

President: Donald McIlvride, Vandercook Hall,
Western Michigan College of Education,
Kalamazoo, Mich.

Vice-president: Jean Harrell, Walwood Hall,
Western Michigan College of Education,
Kalamazoo, Mich.

Secretary: Jean Hansen, Walwood Hall, West-
ern Michigan College of Education, Kala-
mazoo, Mich.

Treasurer: John Alwood, Vandercook Hall,
Western Michigan College of Education,
Kalamazoo, Mich.

Historian-Reporter: Edna May Shafer, Spindler
Hall, Western Michigan College of Educa-
tion, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Counselor: Wm. McKinley Robinson, 1414 Low
Rd., Kalamazoo, Mich.

Beta Kappa

University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia
(May 4, 1929)

President: A. J. Benson, University of Georgia,
Athens, Ga.

Vice-president: I. E. Aaron, University of Geor-
gia, Athens, Ga.

Secretary: Maude S. Hollingsworth, University
of Georgia, Athens, Ga.

Treasurer: Maude S. Hollingsworth, University,
of Georgia, Athens, Ga.

Historian-Reporter: I. E. Aaron, University of
Georgia, Athens, Ga.

Counselor: H. B. Ritchie, University of Georgia,
Athens, Ga.

Beta Lambda

Alabama College, Montevallo, Alabama
(May 24, 1929)

President: Jacquelyn Norton, Box 194, Alabama
College, Montevallo, Ala.

Vice-president: Frances Yates, Box 155, Ala-
bama College, Montevallo, Ala.

Secretary: Voncile Brantley, Box 225, Alabama
College, Montevallo, Ala.

Treasurer: Elaine Coplin, Box 194, Alabama
College, Montevallo, Ala.

Historian-Reporter: Lucille Knott, Box 161,
Alabama College, Montevallo, Ala.

Counselor: Katherine Vickery, 100 Nabor St.,
Montevallo, Ala.

Beta Mu

Peru State Teacher's College, Peru, Nebraska
(May 25, 1929)

President: Arthur Kermoade, Box 57, Peru, Neb.
Secretary: Phyllis M. Steever, 332 Eliza Morgan
Hall, Peru, Neb.

Treasurer: Marvin Svoboda, 105 Delzell Hall,
Peru, Neb.

Counselor: P. A. Maxwell, Peru, Neb.

Beta Nu

Black Hills Teachers College, Spearfish,
South Dakota
(May 25, 1929)

President: Louise Johnston, R.F.D. 1, Spearfish,
S.D.

Vice-president: Theodore Sparks, 404½ Railroad
Ave., Lead, S.D.

Secretary: Mae Pedersen, Wenona Cook Hall,
Black Hills Teachers College, Spearfish, S.D.

Treasurer: Frank L. Bennett, 1041 Main St.,
Spearfish, S.D.

Historian-Reporter: Estella J. Bennett, 1041
Main St., Spearfish, S.D.

Counselor: Ida D. Henton, 1421 5th St., Spear-
fish, S.D.

Beta Xi

Baylor University, Waco, Texas
(May 20, 1929)

President: Carl Rambo, 1125 S. 8th St., Waco,
Tex.

Vice-president: Carol Canady, Burleson Hall,
Baylor University, Waco, Tex.

Secretary: Ethel Hurr, Burleson Hall, Baylor
University, Waco, Tex.

Treasurer: Lorena Stretch, School of Education,
Baylor University, Waco, Tex.

Historian-Reporter: Raymond Biles, Homette 27,
4th and Jones, Baylor University, Waco, Tex.

Counselor: M. L. Goetting, School of Education,
Baylor University, Waco, Tex.

Beta Omicron

State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
(April 17, 1930)

President: Gerard Farley, 2638 N. Frederick
Ave., Milwaukee 11, Wis.

Vice-president: Loretta Schroeder, 3418A N. 25th
St., Milwaukee, Wis.

Secretary: Patricia Lamont, 3270 N. Oakland
Ave., Milwaukee 11, Wis.

Treasurer: Patricia Schumacher, 2013 E. Men-
lo Blvd., Milwaukee 11, Wis.

Historian-Reporter: Sam Falbo, 2024 N. Buffum
St., Milwaukee, Wis.

Counselor: John C. Lazenby, 3544 N. Frederick Ave., Milwaukee 11, Wis.
Executive Committee Member-at-large: John H. Jackson, 1930 N. 6th St., Milwaukee, Wis.

Beta Pi

New York University, New York 3, New York
(May 24, 1930)

President: J. Dwight Daugherty, 14 Forest St., Montclair, N.J.

Vice-president: Mrs. Elizabeth Earle, 459 Devon St., Arlington, N.J.

Corresponding Secretary: Mina Feldmann, 119 95th St., Brooklyn 9, N.Y.

Recording Secretary: Doris Hartridge, 7420 Ridge Blvd., Brooklyn 9, N.Y.

Treasurer: Mrs. Clara Carr Stallard, 433 S. Maple Ave., Glen Rock, N.J.

Historian: Carla Ungar, 222 Centre Ave., New Rochelle, N.Y.

Librarian: Muriel Crooks, 438 73rd St., Brooklyn 9, N.Y.

Counselor: Charles E. Skinner, Room 26, Press Bldg., N.Y.U., New York 3, N.Y.

Beta Rho

State Teachers College, Mansfield, Pennsylvania
(May 27, 1930)

President: Shirley Pierce, State Teachers College, North Hall, Mansfield, Pa.

Vice-president: Ruth Bunn, State Teachers College, North Hall, Mansfield, Pa.

Secretary: Maybelle Woodin, State Teachers College, North Hall, Mansfield, Pa.

Treasurer: Eunice Varcoe, State Teachers College, North Hall, Mansfield, Pa.

Historian-Reporter: Mary Ellen Yeager, State Teachers College, North Hall, Mansfield, Pa.

Counselor: Margaret O'Brien, Holmberg Apts., 35 N. Main St., Mansfield, Pa.

Beta Sigma

Georgia State Teachers College, Athens, Georgia
(May 28, 1930)

Charter withdrawn. Institutional merger.

Beta Tau

La Crosse State Teachers College,
La Crosse, Wisconsin
(June 3, 1930)

President: William Kiel, Unit 8, 16th and Vine Sta., La Crosse, Wis.

Vice-president: Shirlee Sanford, 138 S. 21st St., La Crosse, Wis.

Secretary: Barbara Sorensen, 1721 Pine St., La Crosse, Wis.

Treasurer: Alvin Willers, Unit 7, 16th and Vine Sta., La Crosse, Wis.

Historian-Reporter: Lorena Waidelich, 1911 Main St., La Crosse, Wis.

Counselor: E. L. Walters, 215 N. 24th St., La Crosse, Wis.

Beta Upsilon

Washington University, St. Louis 5, Missouri
(June 5, 1930)

President: Virginia Wheeling, 3818 Blaine Ave., St. Louis 10, Mo.

Vice-president: Donna Hayes, University College, Washington University, St. Louis 5, Mo.

Secretary: Virginia Harris, 8404 Halls Ferry Rd., St. Louis 15, Mo.

Treasurer: S. C. Gribble, Washington University, Department of Education, St. Louis 5, Mo.

Historian-Reporter: Gertrude Fiehler, 1357 McCutcheon Ave., Richmond Heights 17, Mo.

Counselor: Frank L. Wright, Department of Education, Washington University, St. Louis 5, Mo.

Beta Phi

Arizona State College, Tempe, Arizona
(December 16, 1930)

President: Larry Marton, 5802 S. 6th St., Phoenix, Ariz.

Vice-president: Frank Amado, East Hall, Rm. 17, Arizona State College, Tempe, Ariz.

Secretary: Betty Oft, North Hall, Arizona State College, Tempe, Ariz.

Treasurer: Betty Parsons, Alpha Hall, Arizona State College, Tempe, Ariz.

Historian-Reporter: Yetta Stewart, Route 3, Box 713X, Mesa, Ariz.

Counselor: I. D. Payne, Arizona State College, Tempe, Ariz.

Beta Chi

Arizona State College, Flagstaff, Arizona
(December 17, 1930)

President: Theodore Wallace, Clark Homes, Flagstaff, Ariz.

Vice-president: Ulban Chavez, Taylor Hall, Flagstaff, Ariz.

Secretary: Carolyn Lee Byrd, Women's Dormitory, Flagstaff, Ariz.

Treasurer: Lora Maxwell, Women's Dormitory, Flagstaff, Ariz.

Historian-Reporter: Malvin L. Hutchinson, 15 E. Cherry, Flagstaff, Ariz.

Counselor: Ivernia Tyson, 3 S. Beaver, Flagstaff, Ariz.

Alumni Secretary: Regina Rousseau, Flagstaff High School, Flagstaff, Ariz.

Beta Psi

Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois
(January 2, 1931)

President: Denver John Leturno, 412 Van Buren St., Charleston, Ill.

Vice-president: William Harlan Tate, 1504 Richmond St., Mattoon, Ill.

Secretary: Mrs. Betty Jewel Miller Steen, Apt. 19 A, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Ill.

Treasurer: Mary Elizabeth Sharrett, Pemberton Hall, Charleston, Ill.

Historian-Reporter: Vera Mildred Mayer, 870 7th St., Charleston, Ill.

Counselor: Emma Reinhardt, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Ill.

Beta Omega

Fairmont State College, Fairmont
West Virginia
(January 13, 1931)

President: Betty Lou Knapp, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, W.Va.

Vice-president: Eleanor Judy, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, W.Va.

Secretary: Fred Barnette, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, W.Va.

Treasurer: Martin Taylor, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, W.Va.

Historian-Reporter: Boyd D. Howard, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, W.Va.

Counselor: Haddon S. Rhodes, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, W.Va.

Gamma Alpha

Radford College, Radford, Virginia
(February 7, 1931)

President: Blanche Daniel, Radford College, Radford, Va.

Vice-president: Mildred Morin, Radford College, Radford, Va.

Secretary: Virginia Large Preston, Radford College, Radford, Va.

Treasurer: Ethel Roberts, Radford College, Radford, Va.

Historian-Reporter: Elsie Lockmeyer, Radford College, Radford, Va.

Counselor: M'Ledge Moffett, Radford College, Radford, Va.

Gamma Beta

State Teachers College, Bloomsburg,
Pennsylvania
(February 21, 1931)

President: Wilmer Nester, 1442 Shimerville Rd., Lehigh, Pa.

Vice-president: Wayne Creasy, 373 Lightstreet Rd., Bloomsburg, Pa.

Recording Secretary: Rose Thomson, R.D. 2, Towanda, Pa.

Corresponding Secretary: Ruth P. Elder, 600 E. 3rd St., Berwick, Pa.

Treasurer: Richard C. Stout, 150 W. Main St., Bloomsburg, Pa.

Historian-Reporter: Santo Preta, 568 Garland St., Luzerne, Pa.

Counselor: Neil Maupin, State Teachers College, Bloomsburg, Pa.

Gamma Gamma

State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota
(May 1, 1931)

President: Hawley Eia, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minn.

Vice-president: Duane Anderson, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minn.

Acting Secretary-Treasurer: Marie Sorknes, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minn.

Historian-Reporter: Jane Johnston, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minn.

Acting Counselor: Alice L. Corneliasen, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minn.

Gamma Delta

North Dakota Agricultural College,
Fargo, North Dakota
(May 1, 1931)

President: John A. Hest, 1372 12th Ave. N., Fargo, N.D.

Vice-president: Ed Ehli, State College Station, Fargo, N.D.

Secretary: Joyce Gackle Johnston, State College Station, Fargo, N.D.

Treasurer: D. Jean Winslow, State College Station, Fargo, N.D.

Historian-Reporter: D. Jane Winslow, State College Station, Fargo, N.D.

Counselor: Glenn Walrath, No. 13 North Court, State College Station, Fargo, N.D.

Gamma Epsilon

New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey
(May 22, 1931)

President: Theodore Holt, 59 Wagner Pl., Hawthorne, N.J.

Vice-president: Doris Platts, 124 Montrose St., Newark, N.J.

Secretary: George Harriston, 1210 Warren St., Roselle, N.J.

Treasurer: May Christensen, Chapin Hall, Upper Montclair, N.J.

Historian-Reporter: Janice Pensack, 372 Broad St., Newark, N.J.

Counselor: D. Henryetta Sperle, 41 N. Fullerton Ave., Montclair, N.J.

Gamma Zeta

State Teachers College, Trenton, New Jersey
(May 22, 1931)

President: Henry Risetto, State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.

Vice-president: Edward Delate, State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.

Secretary: Reina Rubin, State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.

Treasurer: Beverly Kepler, State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.

Historian-Reporter: Theresa Coderoni, State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.

Counselor: William H. Warner, State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.

Vice-president: Edward Marcantonio, 844 E. 22nd St., Bronx 67, N.Y.

Secretary: Estelle Feldman, 2923 W. 32nd St., Brooklyn 24, N.Y.

Treasurer: Isidore Berglass, Army Hall, Room 333C, 1560 Amsterdam Ave., New York 31, N.Y.

Historian-Reporter: Nancy Schroeder, 53-16 37th Rd. Woodlawn, L.I., N.Y.

Corresponding Secretary: Gertrude Mammele, 601 W. 181st St., New York 33, N.Y.

Counselor: Egbert M. Turner, 124 Lee Ave., Yonkers 5, N.Y.

Gamma Eta

New Mexico State Teachers College, Silver City, New Mexico
(May 26, 1931)

President: Beatriz Olivia Rivera, 502 S. Pinos Altos St., Silver City, N.M.

Vice-president: Mollie Cerny, New Mexico State Teachers College, Silver City, N.M.

Secretary: Iola Jursch, 311 F St., Silver City, N.M.

Treasurer: Norma Maxwell, 511½ Bullard St., Silver City, N.M.

Historian-Reporter: Dan Wooden, Campus Cabin No. 8, NMSTC, Silver City, N.M.

Counselor: H. W. James, NMSTC, President's Office, Silver City, N.M.

Gamma Theta

Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana
(May 28, 1931)

President: Malcolm M. Julian, Elliott Hall, Muncie, Ind.

Vice-president: Robert F. Leah, R. 5, New Castle, Ind.

Secretary: Florence L. Arthur, 714 E. Jackson St., Muncie, Ind.

Treasurer: Angae L. Smith, Lucina Hall, Muncie, Ind.

Historian-Reporter: Betty M. Spall, Lucina Hall, Muncie, Ind.

Counselor: H. A. Jeep, Associate Professor of Education, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.

Gamma Iota

School of Education, City College of New York, New York, New York
(May 29, 1931)

President: Samuel Cohen, 546 E. 147th St., Bronx 55, N.Y.

Gamma Kappa

University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma
(May 30, 1931)

President: Albert A. Little, 133½ S. Quaker Ave., Tulsa, Okla.

Vice-president: Claudia Robinson, R. 8, Box 437, Tulsa, Okla.

Secretary: Annabel Hendren, 1927 E. 13th Pl., Tulsa, Okla.

Treasurer: Annabel Hendren, 1927 E. 13th Pl., Tulsa, Okla.

Counselor: Ross H. Beall, Dept. of Edu., Univ. of Tulsa, Tulsa 4, Okla.

Gamma Lambda

Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, Missouri
(June 6, 1931)

Counselor: Gertrude Bishop, 7728 Suffolk St., Webster Groves 9, Mo.

Gamma Mu

New York State College for Teachers, Buffalo 9, New York
(June 8, 1931)

President: Barbara O'Hara, 3057 Macklean Ave., Niagara Falls, N.Y.

Vice-president: Barbara Kaye, 15 Person St., Buffalo, N.Y.

Secretary: Gloria Maggio, 58 Ketchum Pl., Buffalo 13, N.Y.

Treasurer: Lorraine Pelczynski, 17 Ivanhoe Rd., Buffalo 15, N.Y.

Historian-reporter: Anne Remis, 1119 Elmwood Ave., Buffalo 9, N.Y.

Counselor: C. A. Pugsley, N.Y. State College for Teachers, Buffalo 9, N.Y.

Gamma Nu

Butler University, Indianapolis 7, Indiana
(June 9, 1931)

President: Louis D. Hasenstab, 1813 Brookside Ave., Indianapolis 1, Ind.

Vice-president: Barbara E. Myers, 809 W. Hampton Dr., Indianapolis 7, Ind.

Treasurer: Virginia E. Rodman, 1501 N. Grant Ave., Indianapolis 1, Ind.

Counselor: Blair W. Sparks, 4151 N. Graceland Ave., Indianapolis 8, Ind.

Corresponding Secretary: Anna L. White, 2428 Indianapolis Ave., Indianapolis 8, Ind.

Gamma Xi

State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania
(October 17, 1931)

President: Edith Shafer, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Vice-president: Miriam Steiner, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Recording Secretary: Helen Reese, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Corresponding Secretary: Lillian Drews, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Treasurer: Nora Gross, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Historian-Reporter: Grace Cooper, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Counselor: Francis B. McGarry, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pa.

Gamma Omicron

University of Maine, Orono, Maine
(February 15, 1932)

President: Thomas Beadle, Jr., Box 204, Milford, Me.

Vice-president: Roger Peabody, North Dormitories, Bldg. 14, Rm. 12, U. of Maine, Orono, Me.

Secretary-Treasurer: Doris Vollmer, East Hall, U. of Maine, Orono, Me.

Counselor: Payson Smith, Stevens S., U. of Maine, Orono, Me.

Gamma Pi

St. Cloud State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota
(April 23, 1932)

President: Ruth Swedzinski, Lawrence Hall, St. Cloud Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.

Vice-president: Donald Miller, 512 3rd Ave. S., St. Cloud, Minn.

Secretary: Eunice Isaacson, 417 2nd Ave., S., St. Cloud, Minn.

Treasurer: Gwen Lovering, Shoemaker Hall, St. Cloud Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.

Historian-Reporter: Andy Vavricka, 926 10th Ave. S., St. Cloud, Minn.

Counselor: Richard M. Smith, St. Cloud Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.

Gamma Rho

University of Wichita, Wichita 6, Kansas
(May 26, 1932)

President: Pat Olson, 1923 George Washington Blvd., Wichita, Kan.

Vice-president: Jacquette Swallow, 4261 Fitzgerald Ave., Wichita, Kan.

Recording Secretary: Barbara Brooks, 3908 E. First St., Wichita, Kan.

Treasurer: Cecil B. Read, 425 N. Erie St., Wichita, Kan.

Historian-Reporter: Louis Siegel, 2986 S. Pershing Ave., Wichita, Kan.

Counselor: Leslie B. Sipple, 3223 E. First St., Wichita, Kan.

Corresponding Secretary: Margaret Woods, 1507 N. Hillside Ave., Wichita, Kan.

Assistant Treasurer: Beulah Mullen, 3261 E. 12th St., Wichita, Kan.

Gamma Sigma

San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California

(January 13, 1934)

President: Donald Sutherland, 3782 22nd St., San Francisco 14, Calif.

Vice-president: Dorothy Band, 4043 29th St., San Francisco 14, Calif.

Corresponding Secretary: Catherine Zaboukos, 2316 Castro St., San Francisco 14, Calif.

Recording Secretary: Marion Simon, 1211 2nd Ave., San Francisco, Calif.

Treasurer: John Ryan, 399 Webster St., San Francisco, Calif.

Historian-Reporter: Ann O'Connell, 490 Santa Clara Ave., Redwood City, Calif.

Counselor: Cecilia Anderson, 380 Magellan Ave., San Francisco, Calif.

Gamma Tau

Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota
(February 10, 1934)

President: James L. Lafky, 652 E. 10th St., Winona, Minn.

Vice-presidents: Robert C. Clayton, Prentiss Lodge, 369 W. Broadway, Winona, Minn.

Secretary: Annah Goss, Winona State Teacher's College, Winona, Minn.

Treasurer: David Malcolm, Lucas Lodge, 276 W. 5th St., Winona, Minn.
Historian-Reporter: Lucille Just, Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minn.
Counselor: Floretta Murray, 501 Harriet St., Winona, Minn.

Gamma Upsilon

Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana
(May 10, 1934)

President: Dot Watwood, Physical Education Department, LSU, Baton Rouge, La.
Secretary-Treasurer: John A. Hunter, Box 8684, University Sta., Baton Rouge, La.
Counselor: George H. Deer, College of Education, LSU, Baton Rouge, La.

Gamma Phi

Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, Louisiana
(May 11, 1934)

President: Yvonne Phillips, 806 College Ave., Natchitoches, La.
Vice-president: Elizabeth Horton, 123 Behan St., Natchitoches, La.
Secretary: Patricia Felcher, Box 131, Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, La.
Treasurer: William T. Barber, Box 799, Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, La.
Historian-Reporter: James Tangney, Box 562, Northwestern State College, Natchitoches, La.
Counselor: Mamie Bowman, 300 College Ave., Natchitoches, La.

Gamma Chi

Worcester State Teachers College, Worcester, Massachusetts
(March 1, 1935)

President: Sylvia Hawley, 47 Parker St., Worcester, 2, Mass.
Vice-president: Dorothy Fancy, 198 Stafford St., Worcester 3, Mass.
Secretary: Dorothy Fancy, 198 Stafford St., Worcester 3, Mass.
Treasurer: Tora Sternlof, 28 Whipple St., Worcester 7, Mass.
Historian-Reporter: Dorothy Fancy, 198 Stafford St., Worcester 3, Mass.
Counselor: Lawrence Averill, 5 Rupert St., Worcester 2, Mass.

Gamma Psi

Fresno State College, Fresno 4, California
(April 13, 1935)
President: Keith Canfield, 6015 Arthur St., Fresno, Calif.
Vice-president: Jane Venn, R. 2, Box 684, Clovis, Calif.
Secretary: Constance Mellor, 1509 Mora Ave., Fresno 4, Calif.
Treasurer: John J. Harton, Fresno State College, Fresno 4, Calif.
Historian-Reporter: La Verne Robinson, 1486 Del Mar Ave., Fresno 4, Calif.
Counselor: Francis F. Smith, Fresno State College, Fresno 4, Calif.
Publicity Chairman: Ruth Mazman, 3522 Tyler St., Fresno, Calif.

Gamma Omega

Central State College, Edmond, Oklahoma
(April 27, 1935)

President: Dorothy Serviss, Central State College, Edmond, Okla.
Vice-president: Edna Jones, Central State College, Edmond, Okla.
Secretary-Treasurer: Ralph Reed, Central State College, Edmond, Okla.
Counselor: Winifred E. Stayton, Central State College, Edmond, Okla.

Delta Alpha

Eastern Kentucky State College, Richmond, Kentucky
(May 5, 1935)

President: Joseph Blair Yanity, Jr., College P.O., Richmond, Ky.
Vice-president: Alvin McGlennin, College P.O., Richmond, Ky.
Secretary: Elizabeth Pennington, College P.O., Richmond, Ky.
Treasurer: Alva Martin Thomson, 217 Veteran Village, Richmond, Ky.
Counselor: M. E. Mattox, Eastern Kentucky State College, Richmond, Ky.

Delta Beta

Kent State University, Kent, Ohio
(May 15, 1935)

President: Maria Fiori, Engleman Hall, KSU, Kent, Ohio.
Vice-president: Hobart Adams, 65 N. Weldon Ave., Mansfield, Ohio.

Historian-Reporter: Christopher Artale, R. 2,
Box 396, Kent, Ohio.
Counselor: Gerald Read, 1227 Fairview Dr.,
Kent, Ohio.

Delta Gamma

Concord College, Athens, West Virginia
(May 24, 1935)

Counselor: Cloyd P. Armbrister, Athens, W.Va.

Delta Delta

Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina
(May 25, 1935)

President: Sara Louise Sawyer, Monetta, S.C.
Vice-president: Bruna Jean Williams, R. 3,
Clinton, S.C.
Secretary: Martha Ada Wessinger, R. 2, Colum-
bia, S.C.
Treasurer: Louisa Warren Harrell, Box 284,
Spartanburg, S.C.
Historian-Reporter: Louise Dare Dickson, Box
469, Belmont, N.C.
Counselor: Willis D. Magginis, 520 Aiken Ave.,
Rock Hill, S.C.

Delta Epsilon

Northern Illinois State Teachers College,
De Kalb, Illinois
(May 29, 1935)

President: August Ring, 518½ College Ave.,
De Kalb, Ill.
Vice-president: Margery Gabel, 218 Sycamore
Rd., De Kalb, Ill.
Secretary: Carol Vose, 410 W. Locust St., De
Kalb, Ill.
Treasurer: Rosemary Montgomery, 147 John St.,
De Kalb, Ill.
Counselor: George Terwilliger, 330 College
Ave., De Kalb, Ill.

Delta Zeta

Northern Michigan College of Education,
Marquette, Michigan
(June 1, 1935)

President: Mary Frei, 345 E. Prospect St., Mar-
quette, Mich.
Vice-president: Mary Lee Andrew, Carey Resi-
dence Hall, Marquette, Mich.
Secretary: Margaret Moran, Carey Residence
Hall, Marquette, Mich.
Treasurer: John Mattson, 326 Summit St., Mar-
quette, Mich.
Counselor: Maude L. Van Antwerp, Northern
Mich. College of Education, Marquette, Mich.

Delta Eta

Northwestern State College, Alva, Oklahoma
(January 11, 1936)

President: Bass Chappell, 716 Locust St., Alva,
Okla.
Vice-president: Annette Parker, 321 High St.,
Alva, Okla.
Secretary: Dan Shorter, 824½ College Ave.,
Alva, Okla.
Treasurer: Mrs. Patsy Faulkner, 821 Normal,
Alva, Okla.
Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Elsie Tate, 709 Flynn,
Alva, Okla.
Counselor: Wilma A. Ernst, 716 Locust St., Alva,
Okla.

Delta Theta

Sam Houston State Teachers College,
Huntsville, Texas
(May 5, 1936)

President: Curtis Schatte, 904 19th St., Hunts-
ville, Tex.
Vice-president: Rose Enoch, Belvin Hall, Hunts-
ville, Tex.
Secretary: Bobby Boney, Belvin Hall, Huntsville,
Tex.
Treasurer: Mrs. Frances Oliver, Sam Houston
State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex.
Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Frances Oliver, Sam
Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville,
Tex.
Counselor: T. S. Montgomery, Sam Houston
State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex.

Delta Iota

Southern Louisiana Institute, Lafayette,
Louisiana
(May 8, 1936)

President: Harold H. Gauthe, Box 112, S.L.I.
Sta., Lafayette, La.
Vice-president: Neva Burley, Harris Hall, S.L.I.
Sta., Lafayette, La.
Recording Secretary: Herbert Hebert, 600 N.
Parkerson St., Rayne, La.
Corresponding Secretary and Treasurer: Hulda
Erath, 317 E. College Ave., Lafayette, La.
Historian-Reporter: Gladys Hoffpauir, 119
Calder St., Lafayette, La.
Counselor: Hollie M. Long, Box 156, S.L.I. St.,
Lafayette, La.
Assistant Counselor: Mrs. Ruth S. Girard, 500
E. College Ave., Lafayette, La.

Delta Kappa

Eastern Washington College, Cheney, Washington
(May 16, 1936)

President: James Wood, Jr., Eastern Washington College, Cheney, Wash.

Vice-president: Garland Coffeen, Eastern Washington College, Cheney, Wash.

Secretary: Mary Comings, Eastern Washington College, Cheney, Wash.

Counselor: Obed J. Williamson, Eastern Washington College, Cheney, Wash.

Delta Lambda

Wilson Teachers College, Washington 9, D.C.
(June 13, 1936)

President: Eugenia Burrows, 2617 Newton St. N.E., Washington, D.C.

Vice-president: Marjorie Shelley, 1200 E. Capitol St., Washington, D.C.

Secretary and Historian-Reporter: Betty Jane Bettice, 3812 Alton Pl. N.W., Washington 16, D.C.

Treasurer: Mrs. Ednah R. Koontz, 7373 Largo S.E., Washington 19, D.C.

Counselor: Anna D. Halberg, 1701 Massachusetts Ave. N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Delta Mu

Westminster College, New Wilmington,
Pennsylvania
(May 7, 1937)

President: Howard Walker, 572 Market St., New Wilmington, Pa.

Vice-president: Ida Falsetti, Theta Upsilon House, New Wilmington, Pa.

Secretary: Nancy Schmidt, Ferguson Hall, New Wilmington, Pa.

Treasurer: Margaret Morris, Ferguson Hall, New Wilmington, Pa.

Historian-Reporter: Jean Bricker, Chi Omega House, New Wilmington, Pa.

Counselor: E. C. Shortt, 475 New Castle St., New Wilmington, Pa.

Delta Nu

Whitewater State Teachers College,
Whitewater, Wisconsin
(January 22, 1938)

President: Carlos L. Asher, 118 Main St., Whitewater, Wis.

Vice-president: Ruth Hauser, College Green, Whitewater, Wis.

Secretary: Dona Robinson, 505 E. 10th St., Brodhead, Wis.

Treasurer: Mary Lou Taylor, 116 Park St., Whitewater, Wis.

Historian-Reporter: Wilmer A. Pautz, Whitewater, Wis.

Counselor: Ruben Klumb, 128½ N. Prairie St., Whitewater, Wis.

Delta Xi

Rutgers University School of Education,
New Brunswick, New Jersey
(January 28, 1938)

President: Emma Z. Curtis, 2545 Boulevard, Jersey City, N.J.

Vice-president: Edna M. Agan, 641 Bordentown Ave., S. Amboy, N.J.

Secretary: S. Dorothy Stuart, 73 Chatham St., Chatham, N.J.

Treasurer: Edna Wood, 494 Church St., Longbranch, N.J.

Historian-Reporter: Hannah S. Williams, 114 Cray Terr., Fanwood, N.J.

Counselor: C. E. Partch, School of Education, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.

Delta Omicron

Central Washington College of Education,
Ellensburg, Washington
(February 19, 1938)

President: Leota Janiece Olney, R. 1, Prosser, Wash.

Vice-president: Lee Gavirno, R. 1, Prosser, Wash.

Secretary: Shirley A. Beck, 701 E. 5th St., Ellensburg, Wash.

Treasurer: Amanda Hebler, 205½ E. 8th St., Ellensburg, Wash.

Historian-Reporter: Milton Alvin Dallman, 107 S. Pine St., Ellensburg, Wash.

Counselor: E. E. Samuelson, 1001½ E. 3rd St., Ellensburg, Wash.

Delta Pi

Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia,
Arkansas
(February 19, 1938)

President: Mary Tom Anderson, Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Ark.

Vice-president: Mrs. Lula Stinnett, Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Ark.

Secretary: Irene Callaway, Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Ark.

Treasurer: Erwin Garner, Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Ark.

Historian-Reporter: Amy Jean Greene, Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Ark.

Counselor: Adelphia Meyer Basford, Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Ark.

Delta Rho

Newark State Teachers College,
Newark, New Jersey
(February 19, 1938)

President: Rosanne Conroy, 221 Woodside Ave., Newark 4, N.J.

Vice-president: Evelina Bianco, 45 Salem St., Newark 6, N.J.

Secretary: Mary Yoerger, 955 Grove St., Elizabeth, N.J.

Treasurer: Marion Schriek, 1440 Parkview Terr., Hillside, N.J.

Historian-Reporter: Rhoda Kirschner, 128 Hill St., Highland Park, N.J.

Counselor: Martha Downs, Newark State Teachers College, Broadway at Fourth Ave., Newark, N.J.

Delta Upsilon

New Jersey State Teachers College,
Jersey City, New Jersey
(June 11, 1938)

President: Julia Whyte, 36 Oakland Ave., Jersey City, N.J.

Vice-president: Jane Rue, 199 Bowers St., Jersey City, N.J.

Secretary: Eleanor Mansfield, 144 Anderson Ave., Bergenfield, N.J.

Treasurer: Corinne Jukofsky, 10 Grand Ave., Ridgefield Park, N.J.

Historian-Reporter: Grace Lionetti, 51 Washburn St., Jersey City, N.J.

Counselor: Mrs. Margaret D. Williams, 2344 Hudson Blvd., Jersey City, N.J.

Delta Sigma

Lock Haven State Teachers College,
Lock Haven, Pennsylvania
(May 12, 1938)

President: Shirley Gottshall, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa.

Vice-president: Betty Gottshall, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa.

Secretary: Eileen Chartonn, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa.

Treasurer: Jeannette Hinterlang, 447 S. Fairview St., Lock Haven, Pa.

Historian-Reporter: Jean Detrick, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa.

Counselor: A. S. Rude, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa.

Program Consultant: Willetta Cummings, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa.

Delta Phi

Bowling Green State University,
Bowling Green, Ohio
(May 13, 1939)

President: A. John White, 34 Central Ave., Shelby, Ohio.

Vice-president: Paul L. Boyd, R.F.D. 1, Centerburg, Ohio.

Secretary: Avelda Johnson Weber, R.F.D. 2, Archbold, Ohio.

Treasurer: Charles W. Young, 715 Wallace Ave., Bowling Green, Ohio.

Historian-Reporter: Merlin Shade, R.F.D. 2, Lima, Ohio.

Counselor: Walter A. Zaugg, 116 Troupe Ave., Bowling Green, Ohio.

Delta Tau

Slippery Rock State Teachers College,
Slippery Rock, Pennsylvania
(May 14, 1938)

President: Robert W. Haubrich, 214 S. Hall, State Teachers College, Slippery Rock, Pa.

Vice-president: John H. Evans, 232 Center St., Slippery Rock, Pa.

Secretary: Lorraine Ryan, 201 North Hall, State Teachers College, Slippery Rock, Pa.

Treasurer: Shirley Walters, 202 North Hall, State Teachers College, Slippery Rock, Pa.

Historian-Reporter: Margaret O'Rourke, Box 81, Cecil, Pa.

Counselor: Leonard S. Duncan, Dean of Instruction, State Teachers College, Slippery Rock, Pa.

Delta Chi

Southern Illinois University,
Carbondale, Illinois
(May 20, 1939)

President: Charles W. Allen, 207 W. Cheery St., Carbondale, Ill.

Vice-president: Robert E. Luetzow, 114 E. Grand Ave., Carbondale, Ill.

Secretary: Mrs. Millicent C. Hankla, Apt. 7a, Chautauqua St., Veterans Housing Project, Carbondale, Ill.

Treasurer: Lucille Dintelman, 402 S. University Ave., Carbondale, Ill.

Counselor: William Neal Phelps, 806 W. Chautauqua St., Carbondale, Ill.

Delta Psi

Shepherd College, Shepherdstown, West Virginia
(May 27, 1939)

President: William S. Jorgensen, Shepherdstown, W.Va.

Vice-president: Mrs. James E. (Nancy Cohill) Manuel, Charles Town, W.Va.

Secretary: Cora Roulette, Sharpeburg, Md.

Treasurer: Lucille Shultz, Miller Hall, Shepherdstown, W.Va.

Historian-Reporter: I. O. Ash, Shepherdstown, W.Va.

Counselor: A. D. Kenamond, Shepherdstown, W.Va.

Delta Omega

Murray State College, Murray, Kentucky
(May 31, 1939)

President: Paul Bryant, Gen. Del., College Sta., Murray, Ky.

Vice-president: Reba Jo Cathey Maxey, College Sta., Box 12, Murray, Ky.

Recording Secretary: Laura Belle Morris, Gen. Del., College Sta., Murray, Ky.

Treasurer: Lottie Suiter, Gen. Del., College Sta., Murray, Ky.

Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Jack Wyatt, Gen. Del., College Sta., Murray, Ky.

Counselor: Ruth Ashmore, College Sta., Box 254, Murray, Ky.

Epsilon Alpha

State Teachers College, Towson, Maryland
(February 17, 1940)

President: Mrs. Barbara W. Long, 3900 Clifton Ave., Baltimore 16, Md.

First Vice-president: Theodore Katenkamp, Jr., Augaburg Home, Pikesville 8, Md.

Second Vice-president: L. Earl Wellmeyer, 3409 Ravenwood Ave., Baltimore 13, Md.

Secretary: Joan Sorenson, 5004 Eugene Ave., Baltimore 6, Md.

Treasurer: Hilda Kestner, Lida Lee Tall School, State Teachers College, Towson 4, Md.

Historian-Reporter: Doris E. Miller, 3221 Ravenwood Ave., Baltimore 13, Md.

Counselor: J. Fred Weaver, State Teachers College, Towson 4, Md.

Epsilon Beta

Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana
(February 21, 1940)

President: Norma Maus, 308 Olivier St., New Orleans, La.

Vice-president: W. O. Head, 5013 Camp St., New Orleans, La.

Secretary: Mrs. Audrey Swanson, 933 Nashville Ave., New Orleans, La.

Treasurer: Roy Huss, 4803 Pauger St., New Orleans, La.

Historian-Reporter: Vernon Kappel, 3617 Eagle St., New Orleans, La.

Counselor: E. C. Hunter, 731 Nashville Ave., New Orleans, La.

Epsilon Gamma

Florida Southern College, Lakeland, Florida
(May 24, 1940)

President: Percy Austin, Highland City, Fla.

Vice-president: William Earle, Florida Southern College, Lakeland, Fla.

Secretary: Geraldine Davis, Florida Southern College, Lakeland, Fla.

Treasurer: Betty Purviance, Florida Southern College, Lakeland, Fla.

Historian-Reporter: S. T. Lastinger, 820 Park Hill Ave., Lakeland, Fla.

Counselor: J. C. Peel, Dean of Florida Southern College, Lakeland, Fla.

Epsilon Delta

California State Teachers College,
California, Pennsylvania
(May 24, 1941)

Counselor: Robert M. Steele, California State Teachers College, California, Pa.

Epsilon Epsilon

State Teachers College,
Shippensburg, Pennsylvania
(May 25, 1941)

President: Wayne W. Byers, 437 Ramsey Ave., Chambersburg, Pa.

Vice-president: Donald Abrashoff, Box B, Mount Union, Pa.

Secretary: Anna M. Lubold, R.D. 2, Halifax, Pa.

Treasurer: Ross E. Stitt, 19 Umberto St., New Cumberland, Pa.

Historian-Reporter: Richard R. Whippo, 101 S. Earl St., Shippensburg, Pa.

Counselor: Earl Wright, State Teachers College, Shippensburg, Pa.

Epsilon Zeta

State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pennsylvania
(May 27, 1941)

President: Thomas F. Regan, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.
Vice-president: Anna Mae Moyer, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.
Secretary: Ruth A. Carey, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.
Treasurer: M. Phyllis Zauner, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.
Counselor: Paul A. Knedler, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.

Epsilon Eta

Central Michigan College of Education,
Mt. Pleasant, Michigan
(June 18, 1941)

President: Stanley Nesen, 902 Douglas St., Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Vice-president: Nelson Hickman, 217 First St., Breckenridge, Mich.
Recording Secretary: Phyllis Botruff, Barnard Hall, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Treasurer: Bonnie Norman, Barnard Hall, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Historian-Reporter: Shirlee Bloch, 408 E. Michigan St., Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Counselor: Mary A. Comstock, Department of Foreign Languages, Central Michigan College, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Corresponding Secretary: Gerald L. Poor, Department of Psychology and Education, Central Michigan College, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Assistant to Corresponding Secretary: Helen Holz, Barnard Hall, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.

Epsilon Theta

Morehead State College, Morehead, Kentucky
(May 9, 1942)

President: Naomi Walker, Morehead State College, Morehead, Ky.
Vice-president: Herbert Rose, Morehead State College, Morehead, Ky.
Treasurer: Walter Price, Morehead State College, Morehead, Ky.
Historian-Reporter: Jack Malone, Morehead State College, Morehead, Ky.
Counselor: Mrs. Octavia W. Graves, Morehead State College, Morehead, Ky.

Epsilon Iota

State Teachers College,
Bridgewater, Massachusetts
(May 14, 1942)

President: Mary Minerva, Bridgewater, Mass.
Vice-president: Lorraine Gwozdz, Bridgewater, Mass.
Secretary: Marie Vincent, Bridgewater, Mass.
Treasurer: Joan Bull, Bridgewater, Mass.
Historian-Reporter: Elinor Whalen, Bridgewater, Mass.
Counselor: Robert W. Rucker, Bridgewater, Mass.

Epsilon Kappa

Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan
(May 23, 1942)

President: James Weesner, 533 Seymour Ave., Lansing, Mich.
Vice-president: Elizabeth Chapin, 505 M.A.C. Ave., E. Lansing, Mich.
Secretary: Marianne Briley, Gilchrist Hall, E. Lansing, Mich.
Treasurer: Idella Graves, 548 M.A.C. Ave., E. Lansing, Mich.
Historian-Reporter: Frank Blackford, 815 Chestnut Rd., Apt. C, E. Lansing, Mich.
Counselor: Victor H. Noll, Div. of Ed., Michigan State College, E. Lansing, Mich.
Corresponding Secretary: Doris Raymond, 519 N. Clemens St., Lansing, Mich.

Epsilon Lambda

College of Mines and Metallurgy,
El Paso, Texas
(May 27, 1942)

President: Alice White, 329 W. Missouri St., El Paso, Tex.
Vice-president: Kay Knapp, 2100 N. Stanton St., El Paso, Tex.
Secretary-Treasurer: Dorothy Hahn, 603 E. Nevada St., El Paso, Tex.
Historian-Reporter: Elisa Yip, 611 N. Lee St., El Paso, Tex.
Counselor: Mrs. Bertha Reynolds, College of Mines and Metallurgy, El Paso, Tex.

Epsilon Mu

Teachers College of Connecticut,
New Britain, Connecticut
(April 18, 1943)

President: Eva Norton, 134 Roseleaf Ave., Newington, Conn.
Vice-president: Ruth A. Nettleton, Marcus White Hall, New Britain, Conn.

Secretary: Beverly Schroedel, 37 Fairview St.,
New Britain, Conn.
Treasurer: Roger Gentile, 23 Sefton Dr., New
Britain, Conn.
Historian-Reporter: Joseph Schieffer, Marion Rd.,
West Cheshire, Conn.
Counselor: Louise Evenden Crafts (Mrs. J. S.),
Teachers College of Connecticut, New Britain,
Conn.

Epsilon Nu

Willimantic State Teachers College,
Willimantic, Conn.
(April 14, 1943)

President: Joyce Chase, Burr Hall, Willimantic,
Conn.
Vice-president: Dorothy Bradway, Burr Hall,
Willimantic, Conn.
Secretary: Jean McArthur, 30 Windham St., Wil-
limantic, Conn.
Treasurer: Mrs. Elsie F. Bates, Willimantic State
Teachers College, Willimantic, Conn.
Historian-Reporter: Elizabeth Barber, 158 North
St., Willimantic, Conn.
Counselor: Ruth J. Bradley, Windham Center,
Conn.

Epsilon Xi

Danbury State Teachers College, Danbury,
Connecticut
(April 14, 1943)

President: Mrs. Lucy Benjamin, R.F.D. 3, Dan-
bury, Conn.
Vice-president: Edward McGivern, 8 George St.,
Danbury, Conn.
Secretary: Inacia Perry, Fairfield Hall, Danbury
State Teachers College, Danbury, Conn.
Treasurer: Louise Peebles, Fairfield Hall, Dan-
bury State Teachers College, Danbury, Conn.
Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Helen Platt, Silvermine
Ave., Norwalk, Conn.
Counselor: Mary Swokla, Fairfield Hall, Dan-
bury State Teachers College, Danbury, Conn.

Epsilon Omicron

State Teachers College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin
(May 22, 1943)

President: Jacquelyn Moen, 113½ Mappa St.,
Eau Claire, Wis.
Vice-president: Don Mathison, 126 Ann St., Eau
Claire, Wis.
Secretary: Peggy Theiler, 408 Lincoln Ave., Eau
Claire, Wis.
Treasurer: Grace Miller, 321 Hudson St., Eau
Claire, Wis.
Historian-Reporter: Albert Grorud, Route 5, Eau
Claire, Wis.
Counselor: Laura E. Sutherland, State Teachers
College, Eau Claire, Wis.

Epsilon Pi

Keene Teachers College, Keene, New Hampshire
(November 12, 1943)

Counselor: Leonard S. Morrison, Keene Teachers
College, Keene, N.H.

Epsilon Rho

Rhode Island College of Education, Providence,
Rhode Island
(May 25, 1944)

President: Ruth Mandeville, 117 Central St.,
Manville, R.I.
Vice-president: Dolores Marchand, 400 Gaskill
St., Woonsocket, R.I.
Secretary: Betty H. Pryce, 10 Prospect St., West
Barrington, R.I.
Treasurer: William McIntyre, 691 Sandy Lane,
Apponaug, R.I.
Historian-Reporter: Hope Hohler, Budlong Farm,
Buttonwoods, R.I.
Counselor: Marian Wright, 39 Villa Ave., Edge-
wood 5, R.I.

Epsilon Sigma

State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York
(May 26, 1944)

President: Carla L. Goldsmith, 17 Cedar St.,
Oneonta, N.Y.
Vice-president: Evelyn Newton, 84 Elm St., On-
eonta, N.Y.
Secretary: Olga Severdija, 17 Cedar St., Oneonta,
N.Y.
Treasurer: June Christiansen, 21 Cedar St., On-
eonta, N.Y.
Historian-Reporter: Priscilla Storms, 30 Linden
Ave., Oneonta, N.Y.
Counselor: William Cotton, State Teachers Col-
lege, Oneonta, N.Y.

Epsilon Tau

State Teachers College, Geneseo, New York
(May 31, 1944)

President: Kathryn Wheeler, 10 Park St., Geneseo,
N.Y.
Vice-president: Patricia Del Vecchio, 28 Wad-
sworth St., Geneseo, N.Y.
Secretary: Alyce S. Person, 41 Main St., Geneseo,
N.Y.
Treasurer: Donna Kraiger, 32 Wadsworth St.,
Geneseo, N.Y.
Historian-Reporter: Elizabeth Martin, 32 Wad-
sworth St., Geneseo, N.Y.
Counselor: Gerrard R. Megathlin, State Teachers
College, Geneseo, N.Y.

Epsilon Upsilon

Potsdam State Teachers College,
Potsdam, New York
(June 8, 1944)

President: Dayton James, Potsdam State Teachers College, Potsdam, N.Y.
Vice-president: Lawrence Northam, State Teachers College, Potsdam, N.Y.
Secretary: Mary Lou Farr, 11 Pierrepont Ave., Potsdam, N.Y.
Treasurer: Leland Roberts, 55 Bay St., Potsdam, N.Y.
Historian-Reporter: Jeanne Johnston, 11 Pierrepont Ave., Potsdam, N.Y.
Counselor: F. Roger Dunn, 46 Pierrepont Ave., Potsdam, N.Y.

Epsilon Phi

Jacksonville State Teachers College, Jacksonville,
Alabama
(December 1, 1944)

President: Mrs. Dorothy W. Blake, 515½ N. Church St., Jacksonville, Ala. (Home address: Heflin, Ala.)
Vice-president: Thomas F. Santich, 515 Delaware St., Piedmont, Ala. (Home address: same)
Secretary: Charlie Jean Payne, Daugette Hall, State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Ala. (Home address: Heflin, Ala.)
Treasurer: Maggie Will Frazer, Daugette Hall, State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Ala. (Home address: LaFayette, Ala.)
Historian-Reporter: Marzell Culberson, Daugette Hall, State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Ala. (Home address: Sylacauga, Ala.)
Counselor: L. W. Allison, South Pelham Rd., Jacksonville, Ala.

Epsilon Chi

Cortland State Teachers College,
Cortland, New York
(April 20, 1945)

President: Dominic Mancini, 50 Tompkins St., Cortland, N.Y.
Vice-president: Raymond Williams, 37 Maple Ave., Cortland, N.Y.
Recording Secretary: Aubrey Christie, 15 Prospect Terr., Cortland N.Y.
Corresponding Secretary: Barbara Steve, 91 Lincoln Ave., Cortland N.Y.
Treasurer: William Williams, 37 Maple Ave., Cortland, N.Y.
Historian-Reporter: Martha Stafford, 21 West Court St., Cortland, N.Y.
Counselor: Minnie Pearl Carr, 9 Pleasant St., Cortland, N.Y.

Epsilon Psi

State Teachers College, Florence, Alabama
(April 21, 1945)

President: Betty Gardiner, P. O. Box 1277, Wilson Dam, Ala.
Vice-president: Sarah Turberville, State Teachers College, Florence, Ala.
Secretary: Mildred Whitehead, State Teachers College, Florence, Ala.
Treasurer: Joseph A. Jones, State Teachers College, Florence, Ala.
Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Nila June Gilbert, Box 253, College Station, Florence, Ala.
Counselor: Sophia Sullivan, State Teachers College, Florence, Ala.

Epsilon Omega

Oswego State Teachers College, Oswego,
New York
(May 26, 1945)

President: Marilyn Munn, 286 Washington Blvd., Oswego, N.Y.
Vice-president: Beverly Alden, 286 Washington Blvd., Oswego, N.Y.
Secretary: Phyllis Griesbach, 284 Washington Blvd., Oswego, N.Y.
Treasurer: Dudley Lambert, 113 W. Cayuga St., Oswego, N.Y.
Historian-Reporter: Cheryl Abrahamson, 278 W. Seneca St., Oswego, N.Y.
Counselor: Harold Alford, 67 W. Schuyler St., Oswego, N.Y.

Zeta Alpha

New Jersey State Teachers College, Paterson 3,
New Jersey
(May 31, 1945)

President: Myrtle V. Pavlis, 67 River Rd., Bogota, N.J.
Vice-president: Ada Skuratofsky, 283 Pomona Ave., Newark, N.J.
Secretary: Mildred Jean Ahlers, R.F.D. #1, Oakland, N.J.
Treasurer: June Marie Carrano, 203 Totowa Ave., Paterson 2, N.J.
Historian-Reporter: Evelyn Mott, 577 Market St., Paterson, N.J.
Counselor: Louise E. Alteneder, 185 E. 33rd St., Paterson 4, N.J.

Zeta Beta

University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch,
Duluth, Minnesota
(May 10, 1946)

President: Marylin M. Nelson, 4618 West 4th St., Duluth, Minn.
Vice-president: Robert Butler, 2221 East 4th St., Duluth, Minn.
Secretary: Mabel Schauland, 717 East 9th St., Duluth, Minn.
Treasurer: Nettie Neufield, Torrance Hall, U. of Minn., Duluth Branch, Duluth, Minn.
Counselor: Dorothy Smith, 1721 East 3rd St., Apt. 112, Duluth, Minn.

Zeta Gamma

State Teachers College, Troy, Alabama
(May 18, 1946)

President: Walter Harrison, State Teachers College, Troy, Ala.
Vice-president: J. Ed Neeley, State Teachers College, Troy, Ala.
Secretary: Ernestine Smith, State Teachers College, Troy, Ala.
Treasurer: Myra Carter, State Teachers College, Troy, Ala.
Historian-Reporter: Sam Meeks, State Teachers College, Troy, Ala.
Counselor: R. H. Ervin, State Teachers College, Troy, Ala.

Zeta Delta

Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine, Texas
(May 20, 1946)

President: Anne Novak, P. O. Box 666, Alpine, Tex.
Vice-president: Peggy Pouncey, Box 195, Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine, Tex.
Secretary: K. Frances Daughhetee, c/o Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine, Tex.
Treasurer: Wilma Woodruff, P. O. Box 63, Alpine, Tex.
Historian-Reporter: Mary Ellen Gard, P. O. Box 237, Alpine, Tex.
Counselor: T. H. Etheridge, P. O. Box 359, Alpine, Tex.

Zeta Epsilon

University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio
(May 31, 1946)

President: Kathryn La Fleur, 3019 W. Bancroft Ave., Toledo 6, Ohio
Vice-president: Marjorie Garrett, 4120 N. Haven St., Toledo 6, Ohio

Secretary: Annis Henry, 2538 Goddard Rd., Toledo 6, Ohio

Treasurer: Esther Anderson, 2320 Goddard Rd., Toledo, Ohio

Historian-Reporter: Gloria Moore, 1516 Wildwood Rd., Toledo, Ohio

Counselor: Frank R. Hickerson, 3615 Bluff St., Toledo, Ohio

Zeta Zeta

State Teachers College, New Paltz, New York
(May 31, 1946)

President: Gabriel Deeb, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N.Y.

Vice-president: Virginia Puicci, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N.Y.

Secretary: Frances Garbarino, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N.Y.

Treasurer: Joan Kessel, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N.Y.

Historian-Reporter: Patricia Hughes, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N.Y.

Counselor: John H. Jacobson, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N.Y.

Zeta Eta

University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi
(May 10, 1947)

President: Mrs. David McKinney, Box 163, University, Miss.

Vice-president: Paul Boensch, Box 921, University, Miss.

Secretary: Mrs. Robbie M. Scott, 203 N. Fourth St., Oxford, Miss.

Treasurer: George W. Polhemus, Box 782, University, Miss.

Historian-Reporter: Kathryn Claire Wells, Box 564, University, Miss.

Counselor: Cecil L. Ross, Box 347, University, Miss.

Zeta Theta

Howard College, Birmingham, Alabama
(May 16, 1947)

President: P. A. Vandaver, Rt. 4, Box 290, Bessemer, Ala.

Vice-president: Franklin Randle, Rt. 1, Box 84, Morris, Ala.

Secretary: Mrs. Elizabeth Clark, 105 Munger Ave., Birmingham, Ala.

Treasurer: Calvin Forrester, 309 South 77th St., Birmingham, Ala.

Historian-Reporter: Mrs. Winifred W. Hysong, 4230 Cliff Rd., Birmingham, Ala.

Counselor: Mrs. William Van Gelder, 3705 Mountain Park Circle, Birmingham 9, Ala.

Zeta Iota

East Tennessee State College, Johnson City,
Tennessee
(June 3, 1947)

President: Don Shetler, 114 East Eleventh Ave.,
Johnson City, Tenn.
Vice-president: Estelle White, R.F.D. 4, John-
son City, Tenn.
Secretary: Dorothy Rowe, 1300 East Watuga
Ave., Johnson City, Tenn.
Treasurer: Wilma Reynolds, 313 East Holston
Ave., Johnson City, Tenn.
Historian-Reporter: Lulu Lee Tickle, 1412 Vir-
ginia St., Johnson City, Tenn.
Counselor: Ruben L. Parson, East Tennessee
State College, Johnson City, Tenn.

Zeta Mu

East Texas State Teachers College,
Commerce, Texas
(May 19, 1948)

President: Billy Sandlin, 1812 Mayo St., Com-
merce, Tex.
Vice-president: Robert Warren, 1910 Monroe St.,
Commerce, Tex.
Secretary: Herman Burkett, 408 Patton St., Min-
eola, Tex.
Treasurer: James Connally, 1704 Hunt St., Com-
merce, Tex.
Historian-Reporter: Fannie Roth, 304 W. Col-
lege St., Terrell, Tex.
Counselor: C. O. Mitchell, 2312 Mayo St., Com-
merce, Tex.

Zeta Kappa

Southeastern Louisiana College, College Station,
Hammond, Louisiana
(February 12, 1948)

President: Mrs. Sarah F. Anderson, College Sta-
tion, Hammond, La.
Vice-president: John O. Williamson, College Sta-
tion, Hammond, La.
Secretary: Jerry Gayer, College Station, Ham-
mond, La.
Treasurer: L. L. Fulmer, College Station, Ham-
mond, La.
Historian-Reporter: Velmarae Dunn, College Sta-
tion, Hammond, La.
Counselor: Lyman L. Jones, College Station,
Hammond, La.

Zeta Lambda

Northwest Missouri State Teachers College,
Maryville, Missouri
(April 27, 1948)

President: Wanda Gray, 204 N. Frederick, Mary-
ville, Mo.
Vice-president: Jean Bush, 408 North Ave., Mary-
ville, Mo.
Secretary: Audrey Merritt, Residence Hall, State
Teachers College, Maryville, Mo.
Treasurer: Catherine Franken, State Teachers
College, Maryville, Mo.
Historian-Reporter: Homer T. Phillips, State
Teachers College, Maryville, Mo.
Counselor: John L. Harr, State Teachers College,
Maryville, Mo.

Zeta Nu

Beaver College, Jenkintown, Pennsylvania
(June 1, 1948)

President: Elizabeth Jane Nawrath, Beaver Col-
lege, Jenkintown, Pa.
Vice-president: Beverly Jean Peterson, Beaver
College, Jenkintown, Pa.
Secretary: Frances Virginia Kochel, Beaver Col-
lege, Jenkintown, Pa.
Treasurer: Anne Elizabeth Heaps, Beaver Col-
lege, Jenkintown, Pa.
Historian-Reporter: Betty Lee Heavener, Beaver
College, Jenkintown, Pa.
Counselor: John E. Dugan, Beaver College, Jen-
kintown, Pa.

Jacksonville Alumni

Jacksonville, Florida
(January 3, 1934)

Counselor: G. Ballard Simmons, University of
Florida, Gainesville, Fla.

Fort Worth Alumni

Fort Worth, Texas
(May 4, 1936)

President: Mable Johnson, 3513 College Ave.,
Fort Worth 4, Tex.
Vice-president: Mrs. Velma B. Parker, 4418
Pershing Ave., Fort Worth 7, Tex.
Secretary-Treasurer: Nina Hurley, 212 West
Broadway St., Fort Worth 4, Tex.
Historian-Reporter: Creola Seacy, 2118 Fair-
mount St., Fort Worth 4, Tex.
Counselor: Mamie Brightwell, 1520 W. Terrell
St., Fort Worth 4, Tex.

Houston Alumni

Houston, Texas
(February 14, 1941)

President: A. L. Kerbow, 3220 Rice Blvd.,
Houston 5, Tex.
Vice-president: Harold Wigren, 2208 Commonwealth St., Houston 6, Tex.
Secretary: Antoinette Miller, 216 East 14th St.,
Houston 8, Tex.
Treasurer: Hilda Hardy, 3015 Chenevert St.,
Houston 4, Tex.
Historian-Reporter: Doris Brown, 2112 Quenby Rd.,
Houston 5, Tex.
Counselor: Edwin D. Martin, 2341 Quenby Rd.,
Houston 5, Tex.

Nemaha Alumni

Omaha, Nebraska
(March 15, 1947)

President: M. Jennette Hanigan, 109 Lincoln Ave., Council Bluffs, Iowa
Vice-president: Frances M. Wood, 329 North Second St., Council Bluffs, Iowa
Secretary: Dorothy Maystrick, 2421 South 16th St., Omaha, Neb.
Treasurer: Dorothy Maystrick, 2421 South 16th St., Omaha, Neb.
Historian-Reporter: Josephine Meyer, 107 Glenn Ave., Council Bluffs, Iowa
Counselor: Ernest W. Barker, 428 Fuller Ave., Council Bluffs, Iowa

ON MAY 22, 1948, Delta Xi Chapter, located at Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey, celebrated its Tenth Anniversary. There was an initiation program, a roast chicken dinner, and a program in Kirkpatrick Chapel at which the address was given by Miss Bertha Lawrence, State Teachers College, Trenton, New Jersey. We quote below from the anniversary and menu card a song written by Miss Emily Quig, a past president of the chapter.

HYMN TO KAPPA DELTA PI

(Tune—Auld Lang Syne)

Ye knights of Kappa Delta Pi,
Crusaders of the light,
The shield of prejudice forsake;
Your sword, an open mind keep bright;
In love of truth delight.
Ye searchers in this master quest
Of beauty for each soul
The depth of your desire restore;
Make faith in humankind, your role;
Toil on, approach the goal.
Ye Knights of Kappa Delta Pi;
Crusaders of the light,
All thought of self and hire forget;
Hold service to your charge, your right,
In toil for truth delight.

Silver Anniversary Educational Conference of Omega Chapter Ohio University

THE Silver Anniversary Educational Conference of Omega Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi was held Friday, July 23, 1948. An open convocation at 9:45 in the morning was held in the First Methodist Church Auditorium, since Memorial Auditorium was under repairs. The speaker, Dr. Harold Benjamin, Dean of the College of Education at the University of Maryland, gave a splendid lecture to a good-sized, interested audience of faculty, students, and Kappa Delta Pi alumni and guests. He spoke on "Educational Foundations of the World Community."

At 12:15 a luncheon was served at Howard Hall for out-of-town alumni, honored guests, and active members. Following the luncheon, guests and alumni were welcomed and introduced by the Counselor, Miss Ann Mumma.

The afternoon discussion hour began at 1:40 at Rufus Putnam Auditorium with the Executive Council members of Kappa Delta Pi as guest speakers, and Milton Brown, President of Omega Chapter, presiding. The open discussion was an examination of Dr. Benjamin's morning message. The Council members participating were: Dr. William McKinley Robinson, Executive President, Dr. Katherine Vickery, Executive First Vice President, Dr. Frank L. Wright, Executive Second Vice President, Dr. Kenneth L. Perry, Executive Counselor, and Dr. Truman Lee Kelley, Laureate Counselor. The very able leader of the discussion was Dean Evan R. Collins, Dean of the College of Education, Ohio University. The group was fortunate in having Dr. Benjamin present to help

clarify points. The hour was interesting and stimulating to all, and was participated in by the audience as well as the speakers.

At 4:00 o'clock, during a social hour at the Faculty Women's Club, Kappa Delta Pi members and guests were served with refreshing punch while they visited informally.

The crowning event of the day was the banquet at the Country Club at 6:30, where 103 members and guests gathered to pay tribute to our Honorary Counselor, guide and friend, Dr. T. C. McCracken. Dr. McCracken had installed the chapter, and had served it long and faithfully since its founding in 1923. He had also completed 24 years as National Executive President in February, 1948, and been elected Executive President Emeritus at that time.

After a delicious dinner, the group adjourned to the living room where the President, Milton Brown, expressed the feeling of all of the members and guests in his words of greeting. As toastmistress of the evening, Mrs. Fred Luchs, in her usual interesting manner, then introduced the various speakers. As the highlight of the evening, Dean Irma E. Voigt presented to the University through President John C. Baker, the Omega Chapter Thomas C. McCracken Scholarship Fund. In her presentation, Dean Voigt outlined the purpose of the fund and the goal toward which the chapter is striving. The fund provides for an annual award to be given an outstanding Senior in the College of Education who expects to go on for graduate study in teacher education. Of the \$5,000 amount to be obtained, approximately \$3,500 is now in

hand. This shows the results of the enthusiastic and energetic efforts of the Committee in charge, and all members and friends of Kappa Delta Pi who so willingly shared in the collection of the fund. The fund will be invested by the University in the irreducible debt of the State of Ohio at 6%. It is a fitting tribute to Dean McCracken, and a lasting service to teacher education. President Baker very graciously accepted the award for the University.

Miss Marjorie Malone, an alumna of the Society, gave two very beautiful solos. The speaker of the evening, a friend of Dean McCracken's for many years, was Professor Emeritus J. B. Shouse of Marshall College, Huntington, W.Va., who spoke on "Divergent Opinions and Social Cooperation." His scholarly address tied in most appropriately with the ideals of Kappa Delta Pi. Dr. Frank L. Wright explained the William C. Bagley Teacher Exchange which the National office of Kappa Delta Pi is sponsoring in memory of Dr. William

C. Bagley, former Laureate Counselor. Dr. Wright also presented Dean McCracken with a check as a personal gift from the various chapters of Kappa Delta Pi.

The Silver Anniversary occasion was one long to be remembered in the history of Omega Chapter, as well as of Ohio University. Omega Chapter hopes that the annual scholarship award, created by the fund which was collected, will be an inspiration to many through the years to press onward and upward in the field of education.

The Committee

MILTON BROWN
RONALD CALENDINE
CARL CAMPBELL
ALICE DEMELL
HELEN M. EVANS
GEORGE JOACHIM
PAUL KOVAL
PAULINE KRUSE
ANN MUMMA
KATHRYN BOYD SHURTLEFF

A revision of the By-Laws and Constitution has been made and a new edition is being printed.

Embossed seals (in gold) of the key of KΔΠ are available at \$1.50 a hundred. They are suitable for menus, programs, etc. They may be ordered from the General Office.

A design for an honor key has been approved by the Executive Council, and our jewelers are now preparing the die.

Three Chapters Installed

Zeta Lambda

ON April 27, 1948, Executive Second Vice-President, Dr. Frank L. Wright installed Zeta Lambda chapter at Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri. Fourteen members were initiated

and the following officers were elected: President, Eleanor Vogel; Vice-President, Jack Garrett; Secretary, Dorris Gillespie; Treasurer, Katherine Franken. Professor John L. Harr is serving as counselor.

Zeta Mu

ZETA MU chapter was installed at East Texas Teachers College at Commerce, Texas, on May 19, 1948. Dr. Katherine Vickery was the installing officer. There were eleven charter members initiated and the following officers were elected:

President, Billy Joe Sandlin; Vice President, Robert Warren; Treasurer, James Connelly; Secretary, Herman Burkett; Historian, F. Fay Roth; Counselor, Dr. C. O. Mitchell.

Zeta Nu

ZETA NU chapter of Kappa Delta Pi was installed at Beaver College, Jenkintown, Pennsylvania, on Tuesday afternoon, June 1, 1948. Dr. E. I. F. Williams, National Recorder-Treasurer of the Society, presided at the ceremony. He was assisted by Dr. John E. Dugan, Head of the Department of Education at the College and a charter member of Delta Xi chapter.

Seventeen students and one faculty member were initiated into the Society. These charter members of Zeta Nu chapter are: Betty Jane Anderson, Frances Brown, Margaret Elizabeth Green, Anne Elizabeth Heaps, Betty Lee Heavener, Frances Virginia Kochel, Dorothy Lucille Kraske, Alice Virginia Mourer, Ruth Emily McFeeter, Elaine Lillian Mela, Elizabeth Jane Nawrath, Beverly Jean Peterson, Lorraine Shure Preston, Muriel Anna Ruemmler, Gloria Virginia Schmidt, Mary Margaret Sprinkle, Anne Stelos and Helen L. Shields. The members are repre-

sentative of the Elementary, Secondary, and Religious Education fields of teaching.

At the close of the ceremony, the following officers were elected for the coming year: Elizabeth Jane Nawrath, President; Beverly Jean Peterson, Vice-President; Frances Virginia Kochel, Secretary; Anne Elizabeth Heaps, Treasurer; and Betty Lee Heavener, Historian-Reporter. Dr. Dugan will be the Chapter Counselor.

An installation dinner was held at Grey Towers on the campus. At that time Dr. Williams talked on the history and activities of Kappa Delta Pi. Dr. Raymon M. Kistler, President of the College, and Dr. Ruth L. Higgins, Dean of the College, congratulated the new members of the Society, and added their best wishes for the success of Zeta Nu chapter.

BETTY LEE HEAVENER
*Historian-Reporter of
Zeta Nu chapter*

The Recorder-Treasurer Visits England and France

BY ACTION of The Executive Council the Recorder-Treasurer and Editor was given permission to be absent from the General Office during the months of June, July and August, during which time his secretary was authorized to sign candidate information cards and carry on the routine business. During his absence the Recorder-Treasurer was in constant touch with the Office. In this day of speed a letter could usually be delivered by air mail three or four days after it was sent, so that a reply to his letter could be at hand in a week's time.

Seven weeks of the thirteen-week period was spent in France (four weeks in Paris, three weeks in the provinces), studying French education and French life. It was the Recorder-Treasurer's fortune to be entertained by a number of leading French educators, to visit many schools—primary, lycées, universities—and to become acquainted with the operation of the French Ministry of Education, having been received by a number of leading educational officials of the French nation.

It was also his high privilege to meet many of the leading members of the staff of the Unesco Secretariat, in Unesco House located near the historic Arc de Triomphe. A pleasant hour was spent in conference with Dr. Th. Simon, of the famous team of Binét-Simon of intelligence testing fame, and also with other psychologists of Paris and the Parisian lycées. At Sèvres he was entertained at dinner by Madame Hattinguais, Directrice of the Centre International D'Études Pédagogiques, who was a guest at the Kappa Delta Pi dinner at Atlantic City, New Jersey, and to have a visit with Dr. Howard E. Wilson, of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, who was the Atlantic City Lecturer.

While at Nice, France, the Editor received a telegram from Mr. Caffery, the American ambassador to France with the information that he had been appointed by the Department of State at Washington, D.C., as a member of the Research Seminar on Teacher Education to be held by Unesco at Ashridge College about 35 miles from London for a six-week period during July and August. Here fifty-five persons, including the administrative staff and the delegates from about twenty-two nations, wrestled with the problems of international education and intercultural understanding.

The location of the Seminar was superb, in a large old English home, now used as an adult education center in honor of Bonar Law where 5,000 persons a year make serious study of present problems during short study terms. Spacious lawns, good fellowship, excellently planned programs, visits from leading educators of England and the Continent, addresses by leaders from Unesco, visits to educational projects and historical shrines—all combined to make a stay both pleasant and educative.

Every continent was represented in the Seminar and the members were from countries having diversified backgrounds. America was represented by six members, the largest delegation. Members were present from England, France, Gold Coast, South Africa, Burma, Ecuador, Turkey, Egypt, Italy, Belgium, Canada, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, Poland, India, and Syria.

It was a great privilege to visit Europe at this decisive time, and to enjoy living with so many representatives of the governments of the world. As a result of this experience we hope that we may contribute somewhat to the aims and purposes of

Unesco. Already the Editor has been scheduled for many addresses on this subject. A set of colored Kodachrome slides which he made of the Seminar has been prepared. A duplicate set of these has been purchased by the Division of Education of Unesco in Paris for publicity purposes and for possible use in Unesco publications.

It was pleasant to meet Dr. Roscoe E. West, a member of the Editorial Board of

THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM, who was also a member of the Seminar.

Our thanks are due to The Executive Council for the leave of absence which made the trip possible. A number of articles for THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM have been engaged from leaders in France, England, and members of the Unesco Secretariat in Paris. It was interesting to meet several subscriber members of the Seminar.



MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL OF KAPPA DELTA PI, JULY 23-25, 1948,
OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, OHIO

Left to right: Executive Second Vice-president, Frank L. Wright; Executive First Vice-president Katherine Vickery; Executive President Emeritus Thomas C. McCracken; Executive President Wm. McKinley Robinson; Ann E. Mumma, Counselor of Omega chapter and Acting Secretary; Laureate Counselor Truman Lee Kelley; and Executive Counselor Kenneth F. Perry.

OFFICIAL INSIGNIA OF KAPPA DELTA PI

Orders on official
blanks must be ap-
proved by a chapter
officer and the Re-
corder - Treasurer of
the Society.

No. 0
Badge

No. 1
Badge
with
Guard

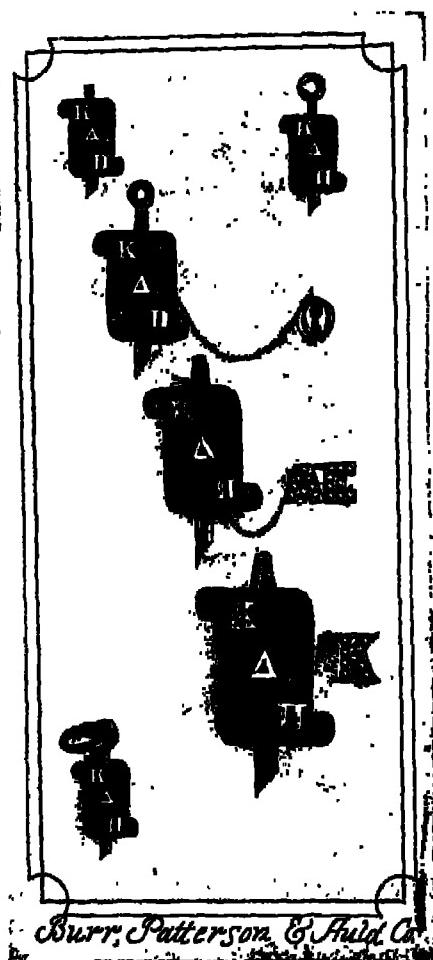
No. 2
Badge
with
Guard

No. 0
Charm

No. 0
Badge
with
Ring

No. 3
Badge
with
Guard

Checks and money or-
ders should be made
payable to Burr, Pat-
terson and Auld Com-
pany, Detroit, Michi-
gan.



PRICE LIST

Badges

Badge	Size	Size	Size	Size
Badge with ring at top	No. 0	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3
Charm	\$3.50	\$4.50	\$6.00	\$7.50

Guard Pins

	Single Letter	Double Letter
Plain	\$2.25	\$ 3.50
Crown Set Pearl	\$6.00	\$10.00

TAXES

To prices quoted must be added a Federal tax on jewelry of twenty per cent. In addition a use or occupation tax is charged in some states as indicated: Alabama, 2%; Colorado, 2%; Illinois, 2%; Iowa 2%; Kansas, 2%; Michigan, 3%; North Dakota, 2%; Ohio, 3%; South Dakota, 2%; Utah, 2%; Wyoming, 2%. Since state taxes vary from time to time, officers should make a check on the taxes in their own states to determine the amount which must be paid.

THE
EDUCATIONAL
FORUM

VOLUME XIII
NUMBER 2, PART 1

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THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM



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Behind the By-Lines

As our first article we are privileged to print the complete inaugural address given by President Dwight D. Eisenhower on the occasion of his assuming office at Columbia University. Its title is *Notes for Inaugural Address*; its theme, human freedom versus regimentation and the American way of life. No extended sketch of his career is needed. As Supreme Commander of the Allied Forces during World War II and author of his memoirs in his "Crusade in Europe," already a best-seller he is known throughout the world. Our readers will have keen interest in his educational positions as he becomes President of one of the world's greatest universities.

The American University in American Social Life is presented by I. L. Kandel, Professor of American Studies at the University of Manchester, England, and Editor of School and Society. He is Professor Emeritus of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University. He is also the present editor of a new magazine devoted to higher education published in England. His article clearly shows points of difference between American and English universities.

The Role of Objectives in Higher Education is a third article in this issue referring specifically to higher education. It is in essentially the same form as an address delivered by Dr. Tead before the Ninth Conference on Science, Philosophy and Religion. He has contributed several articles in the past for THE FORUM. He is Chairman of the Board of Higher Education of New York City which is concerned with the administration of the four municipal colleges, City College, Hunter, Brooklyn and Queens. His recently published brochure, "A Broader Mandate for Higher Education," is referred to in Brief Browsings in Books in this issue.

Richard L. Loughlin, whom our readers will recognize as a former contributor, after more than three years in the Armed Forces,

again teaches speech at John Adams High School, New York City, by day, and is a lecturer at Brooklyn College in its evening sessions. His present topic, *A Philosophy of Comedy*, is described by him as "the essence of the comic spirit in literature and life."

Sidney Cox, Professor of English, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire, is the author of "The Mischief in Robert Frost's Way of Teaching." The article includes most of the two chapters from a forthcoming portrait of Robert Frost (to whom he has been a friend for thirty-seven years) under the title, "A Swinger of Birches." Among Professor Cox's other books are: *The Teaching of English, Instructions: for those who want to write*; and *Robert Frost: Original Ordinary Man*.

C. A. Alington of England is a D.D. and D.C.L. From 1916 to 1933 he was headmaster of Eton, perhaps England's most famous public school. He has written a number of works on Eton as well as on general phases of education. He has been assistant master at Marlborough and headmaster of Shrewsbury—both famous English public schools. He was chaplain to the King of England from 1921 to 1933 and Chairman of the Headmasters' Conference, 1924-25. Since 1933 he has been Dean of Durham. In his article for this issue he describes the attitudes which are built in the great public schools of England, taking as his subject, *The Democratic Approach to Education*.

Student Criticisms is a brief paper submitted by Stanley Skiff of the College of Arts and Sciences of the University of Kentucky where he is now Instructor in Personality and Intelligence Testing.

Contributions of the National Education Association toward Building a Teaching Profession describes the signal service which this national organization of teachers

(continued on page 256)

THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

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Notes for Inaugural Address*

DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

NEVER in her long history has any honor come to Columbia greater than that accorded her by this gathering of her friends. No other testimony could more convincingly demonstrate universal respect for this university as a fruitful agent in the promotion of human knowledge and human welfare. Among you are men and women from the learned professions, from the offices of management and finance, from labor unions, from the machines of factories, from the shops of small towns, from the farms and the plain homes of America. No school, narrow in its outlook, fearful of the new, bogged down in sterile allegiance to the past, could provoke such a diverse assembly as is this.

Columbia welcomes you and will record with lasting pride the tribute of your presence.

I feel a sense of high personal distinction that I am privileged to participate in this ceremony. If this were a

land where the military profession is a weapon of tyranny or aggression—its members an élite caste dedicated to its own perpetuation—a life-long soldier could hardly assume my present role. But in our nation the army is the servant of the people, designed and trained exclusively to protect our way of life. Duty in its ranks is an exercise of citizenship. Hence, among us, the soldier who becomes an educator or the teacher who becomes a soldier enters no foreign field but finds himself instead engaged in a new phase of his fundamental life purpose—the protection and perpetuation of basic human freedoms.

I

Today's challenge to freedom and to every free institution is such that none of us dares stand alone. For human freedom is today threatened by regimented statism. The threat is infinitely more than that involved in opposing ideologies. Men of widely divergent views in our own country live in peace

* Inaugural Address, Columbia University, New York City, October 12, 1948.

together because they share certain common aspirations which are more important to them than their differences. But democracy and the police state have no common purposes, methods, or aspirations. In today's struggle, no free man, no free institution can be neutral. All must be joined in a common profession—that of democratic citizenship; every institution within our national structure must contribute to the advancement of this profession.

The common responsibility of all Americans is to become effective, helpful participants in a way of life that blends and harmonizes the fiercely competitive demands of the individual and of society. The individual must be free, able to develop to the utmost of his ability, employing all opportunities that confront him for his own and his family's welfare; otherwise he is merely a cog in a machine. The society must be stable, assured against violent upheaval and revolution; otherwise it is nothing but a temporary truce with chaos. But freedom for the individual must never degenerate into the brutish struggle for survival that we call barbarism. Neither must the stability of society ever degenerate into the enchain'd servitude of the masses that we call statism.

Only when each individual, while seeking to develop his own talents and further his own good, at the same time protects his fellows against injury and co-operates with them for the common betterment—only then is the fullness of orderly, civilized life possible to the millions of men who live within a free nation.

The citizenship which enables us to enjoy this fullness is our most priceless heritage. By our possession and wise use of it, we enjoy freedom of body, intellect, and spirit, and in addition material richness beyond the boast of Babylon. To insure its perpetuation and proper use is the first function of our educational system.

To blend, without coercion, the individual good and the common good is the essence of citizenship in a free country. This is truly an art whose principles must be learned. Like the other arts, perfection in its manifold details can never be attained. This makes it all the more necessary that its basic principles be understood in order that their application may keep pace with every change—natural, technological, social.

Democratic citizenship is concerned with the sum total of human relations. Here at home this includes the recognition of mutual dependence for liberty, livelihood and existence of more than 140 million human beings. Moreover, since we cannot isolate ourselves as a nation from the world, citizenship must be concerned too with the ceaseless impact of the globe's two billion humans upon one another, manifested in all the multitudinous acts and hopes and fears of humanity.

The educational system, therefore, can scarcely impose any logical limit upon its functions and responsibilities in preparing students for a life of social usefulness and individual satisfaction. The academic range must involve the entire material, intellectual, and spiritual aspects of life.

Underlying this structure of knowl-

edge and understanding is one immutable, incontestable fact: Time and again, over the span of the last 700 years, it has been proved that those who know our way of life place upon one thing greater value than upon any other—and that priceless thing is individual liberty. This requires a system of self-government, which recognizes that every person possesses certain inalienable rights and that rules and regulation for the common good may be imposed only by the ultimate authority of the citizens themselves.

This individual freedom is not the product of accident. To gain and retain it our forefathers have sacrificed material wealth, have undergone suffering, indeed have given life itself. So it is with us today.

But it is not enough merely to realize how freedom has been won. Essential also is it that we be ever alert to all threats to that freedom. Easy to recognize is the threat from without. Easy too is it to see the threat of those who advocate its destruction from within. Less easy is it to see the dangers that arise from our own failure to analyze and understand the implications of various economic, social, and political movements among ourselves.

Thus, one danger arises from too great a concentration of power in the hands of any individual or group: The power of concentrated finance, the power of selfish pressure groups, the power of any class organized in opposition to the whole—anyone of these, when allowed to dominate is fully capable of destroying individual freedom as is

power concentrated in the political head of the state.

The concentration of too much power in centralized government need not be the result of violent revolution or great upheaval. A paternalistic government can gradually destroy, by suffocation in the immediate advantage of subsidy, the will of a people to maintain a high degree of individual responsibility. And the abdication of individual responsibility is inevitably followed by further concentration of power in the state. Government ownership or control of property is not to be decried principally because of the historic inefficiency of governmental management of productive enterprises; its real threat rests in the fact that, if carried to the logical extreme, the final concentration of ownership in the hands of government gives to it, in all practical effects, absolute power over our lives.

There are internal dangers that require eternal vigilance if they are to be avoided. If we permit extremes of wealth for a few and enduring poverty for many, we shall create social explosiveness and a demand for revolutionary change. If we do not eliminate selfish abuse of power by any one group, we can be certain that equally selfish retaliation by other groups will ensue. Never must we forget that ready co-operation in the solution of human problems is the only sure way to avoid governmental intervention.

All our cherished rights—the rights of free speech, free worship, ownership of property, equality before the law—all these are mutually dependent for their

existence. Thus, when shallow critics denounce the profit motive inherent in our system of private enterprise, they ignore the fact that it is an economic support of every human right we possess and that without it, all rights would soon disappear. Demagogery, unless combatted by truth, can become as great a danger to freedom as exists in any other threat.

It was loss of unity through demagogic appeals to class selfishness, greed, and hate that Macaulay, the English historian, feared would lead to the extinction of our democratic form of government. More than ninety years ago he wrote of these fears to the American historian, H. S. Randall. In a letter of May 23, 1857 he said, ". . . when a society has entered on this downward progress, either civilization or liberty must perish. Either some Caesar or Napoleon will seize the reins of government with a strong hand; or your republic will be as fearfully plundered and laid waste by barbarians in the Twentieth Century as the Roman Empire was in the Fifth;—with this difference, that the Huns and Vandals who ravaged the Roman Empire came from without, and that your Huns and Vandals will have been engendered within your own country by your own institutions."

That day shall never come if in our educational system we help our students gain a true understanding of our society, of the need for balance between individual desires and the general welfare, and of the imperative requirement that every citizen participate intelligently and effectively in democratic affairs. The

broadest possible citizen understanding and responsibility is as necessary in our complex society as was mere literacy before the industrial revolution.

It follows, then, that every institution built by free men, including great universities, must be first of all concerned with the preservation and further development of human freedom—despite any contrary philosophy, or force that may be pitted against it.

II

At all levels of education, we must be constantly watchful that our schools do not become so engrossed in techniques, great varieties of fractionalized courses, highly specialized knowledge, and the size of their physical plant as to forget the principal purpose of education itself—to prepare the student for an effective personal and social life in a free society. From the school at the crossroads to a university as great as Columbia, general education for citizenship must be the common and first purpose of them all.

I do not suggest less emphasis on pure research or on vocational or professional training; nor am I by any means suggesting that curricula should be reduced to the classical education of the nineteenth century. But I deeply believe that all of us must demand of our schools more emphasis on those fundamentals that make our free society what it is and that assure its boundless increase in the future if we comprehend and apply them.

Love of freedom, confidence in the efficacy of co-operative effort, optimism

for the future, invincible conviction that the American way of life yields the greatest human values—to help the student build these attitudes not out of indoctrination but out of genuine understanding, may seem to some to be education in the obvious.

Of course, the reverse is true. There is a growing doubt among our people that democracy is able to cope with the social and economic trials that lie ahead. Among some is a stark fear that our way of life may succumb to the combined effects of creeping paralysis from within and aggressive assault from without.

Fear of the future with a concomitant sense of insecurity and doubt of the validity of fundamental principles is a terrible development in American life—almost incredible in the immediate aftermath of America's most magnificent physical and spiritual triumphs. Only by education in the apparently obvious can doubt and fear be resolved.

Here lies a heavy obligation on Columbia University and all her sister schools; unless such fear is banished from our thinking, the sequel will be either the heavy curse of tyrannical regimentation or the collapse of our democratic civilization in social anarchy.

Love of freedom, confidence in co-operative effort, optimism, faith in the American way will live so long as our schools loyally devote themselves to truly liberal education. To assign the university the mission of ever strengthening the foundations of our culture is to ennoble the institution and confirm the vital importance of its service.

Historical failures in the application of democratic principles must be as earnestly studied as the most brilliant of democracy's triumphs. But underlying all must be the clear conviction that the principles themselves have timeless validity. Dependence by the country upon the schools for this vital service implies no infringement of academic freedom.

Indeed, academic freedom is nothing more than specific application of the freedoms inherent in the American way of life. It follows that to protect academic freedom, the teacher must support the sum total of the principles which, among other things, guarantees freedom for all. The teacher's obligation to seek and speak the truth is further safeguarded by university custom and commitment.

There will be no administrative suppression or distortion of any subject that merits a place in this University's curricula. The facts of communism, for instance, shall be taught here—its ideological development, its political methods, its economic effects, its probable course in the future. The truth about communism is, today, an indispensable requirement if the true values of our democratic system are to be properly assessed. Ignorance of communism, fascism, or any other police-state philosophy is far more dangerous than ignorance of the most virulent disease.

Who among us can doubt the choice of future Americans, as between statism and freedom, if the truth concerning each be constantly held before their eyes? But if we, as adults, attempt to

hide from the young the facts in this world struggle, not only will we be making a futile attempt to establish an intellectual "iron curtain," but we will arouse the lively suspicion that statism possesses virtues whose persuasive effect we fear.

The truth is what we need—the full truth. Except for those few who may be using the doctrine of communism as a vehicle to personal power, the people who, in our country, accept communism's propaganda for truth are those most ignorant of its aims and practices. Enlightenment is not only a defender of our institutions, it is an aggressive force for the defeat of false ideologies.

America was born in rebellion, and rebellion against wrong and injustice is imbedded in the American temper. But whatever change our rebels of the American past may have sought, they were quick to proclaim it openly and fearlessly, preaching it from the house-tops. We need their sort, and here at Columbia we shall strive to develop them— informed, intelligent rebels against ignorance and imperfection and prejudice. But because they have sought the truth and know it, they will be loyal to the American way, to the democracy within which we live. They will never tire of seeking its advancement, however, viciously they may be attacked by those content with the status quo. Their loyalty will be enhanced by each day they spend at Columbia.

The American university does not operate in an unreal world of its own, concerned solely with the abstract, secluded from the worrisome problems of

workaday living, insulated against contact with those other institutions which constitute our national structure. Just as the preservation of the American way demands a working partnership among all 146 million Americans, its continued development demands a working partnership between universities and all other free institutions.

The school, for example, that enjoys a partnership with the manufacturing industries and labor unions and mercantile establishments of its community is a better and more productive school in consequence of its non-academic associations. Its influence permeates the entire community and is multiplied many times over while the school itself, energized by the challenges and dynamism of community life, grows and broadens with each problem it helps surmount.

Together, the university and the community—the entire record of human experience at their call, able to apply academic, technical and practical knowledge to the problem, joined in voluntary co-operative effort—together they can analyze and evaluate and plan. By such partnership, it is not too much to hope that the university—losing none of its own freedom, but rather extending its academic horizons—will in time help develop a new freedom for America— freedom from industrial strife.

Partnership is the proof and product of unity. But in a free democracy unity is possible only through intelligent and unswerving adherence to fundamental principles. Columbia shall teach them. More than that, Columbia shall demonstrate their practical application.

III

To build a stouter unity among our people is the most worthy of goals. For a unified America is the greatest temporal power yet seen upon the earth—a power dedicated to the betterment and happiness of all mankind. Columbia shares in that dedication.

Columbia University, like so many others, has been established and is voluntarily maintained and supported by free people. In no other environment could it in the space of two centuries have attained an international stature as a home of learning and research.

Columbia University, consequently, an independent gift-supported institution, free from political and sectarian obligation, will forever be bound by its loyalty to truth and the basic concepts of democratic freedom. It shall follow, then, that Columbia will always be characterized by: First, an undergraduate body of men and women, schooled in the broad expanse of human knowledge and humble in their heritage—resolute that they shall pass both on with some increase. From among them will come scholars, executives, statesmen. But Columbia shall count it failure, whatever their success, if they are not all their lives a leaven of better citizenship.

Second, Columbia will be characterized by: a graduate body of men and women who, each in his own field, shall

advance frontiers of knowledge and use the techniques of science in the service of humanity. From among them will come skilled surgeons, engineers, lawyers and administrators, great leaders in every profession and science. But again, we shall count it failure, if they, by specialization, become blinded to human values and so ignore their fundamental duty as citizens.

Third, Columbia University will be: a dynamic institution as a whole, dedicated to learning and research and to effective co-operation with all other free institutions which will aid in the preservation and strengthening of human dignity and happiness. Our way of life and our university are the flowering of centuries of effort and thought. Men of the ancient world—in Jerusalem and Athens and Rome; men of all epochs, all regions, and all faiths have contributed to the ideals and ideas that animate our thinking. Columbia University is, and shall continue, both heir of that past and a pioneer in its future increase.

My personal dedication is in the manner of my illustrious predecessors—who in late years have included—Seth Low, Nicholas Murray Butler, Frank Fackenthal—to devote my energies to the support of Columbia's able and distinguished faculty, in the service of America, in the service of all humanity.

*God gives almonds to some who have no teeth.
—Foreign proverb*

On Hearing Debussy's Clair de Lune

GERHARD FRIEDRICH



This utter spaciousness, this measured falling
Of notes as cool and clear as summer rain;
This white cascade of moonlight so entralling
That horses stand like dreams upon the plain;

This loneliness, this longing, and this calling
Past ancient trees and down a shadowed lane;
And then the stillness, sacred and appalling,
This amber view as over fields of grain:

Immortal heart whose haunted hand was scrawling
The melody of love and lovers' pain,
Your song is known, your stirring and your stalling
Has found an echo and a sweet refrain.

The American University in American Social Life

I. L. KANDEL

I

A UNIVERSITY, like all other human institutions—like the Church, like governments, like philanthropic organizations—is not outside, but inside the general social fabric of a given era. It is not something apart, something historical, something that yields as little as possible to forces and influences that are more or less new. It is, on the contrary—so I shall assume—an expression of the age, as well as an influence operating upon both present and future."

"Every age does its own creating and re-shaping; so does every country."

Few foreigners who have formed their picture of colleges and universities in the United States from Dr. Flexner's book, "Universities American, English, German," would suspect that these statements were taken from that book.

It is unfortunate that so few of those who gained the impression that the major concerns of American higher education are to provide home study courses, courses in cookery, courses in making ice-cream more palatable, and courses in school janitorial services failed to take note of the fact that Dr. Flexner, critical as he was of some of the activities of American colleges and universities, did not fail to do justice to the contributions which they have made to the advancement of scholarship.

"A half century ago, therefore," he

wrote, "the opportunities for advanced or critical thinking in America were very scarce and very limited. The change since that day has been amazing, immensely to the credit of a people that within a few generations has had to subdue a continent, create a social and political order, maintain its unity, and invent educational, philanthropic, sanitary, and other agencies capable of functioning at all. Higher opportunities have within this brief period become abundant—less abundant, I think, than external appearances frequently indicate, yet abundant in almost every direction—in the older disciplines, in the newer, in the professions and in state-supported as well as in endowed universities. Sums of which no one could then have dreamed have been assembled; buildings, apparatus, books have been provided. The country cannot, of course, dispense with Europe; but in the realms of higher education America has become in certain fields a country with which Europe cannot any longer dispense either. I shall go into details as I proceed. But this categorical statement I make now at the outset, in order that the reader may know that, however severely I reprobate many of the doings of our universities, I do full justice to their solid achievements."

What Dr. Flexner failed to emphasize sufficiently, however, was that what he regarded as aberrations from the main

road of the ideal of higher education were not invented by educators living in a vacuum, but were made in response to the social and cultural demands of the environment in which they were working. A far more penetrating appreciation of the situation than has ever been made by any American educator was expressed by J. A. Spender in *Through English Eyes* in the following words:

"The English academic, who has been brought up on Newman's 'Idea of a University,' feels a certain dreariness of spirit, as Matthew Arnold used to say, when he sees the great University of Harvard launching out into an immense and imposing business faculty. And he laughs sarcastically when he learns that certain American Universities of the modern type give degrees and diplomas in horticulture, domestic science, salesmanship, drugstore management, etc. The Englishman, nevertheless, is wrong. This is the natural way in which a new and developing country breaks into education. In such a country the higher education will remain in the air—the privilege of a few favourites of fortune—if it is jealously guarded as the region of a few select studies. A new American University regards it as its first task to go out into the highways and hedges and compel them to come in. In this initial stage its feast must be spread to tempt the appetite; and it follows the universal habit in this business country of discovering what the public wants and giving it without stint or shame. Very unlike Oxford or Cambridge, no doubt, but it is absurd to compare the breaking of ground in a new country with the traditional life of those ancient institutions.

Even they are finding that they have to compromise with new ways, and the new country inevitably starts with them."

The great variety of courses—cultural and vocational—which are offered in institutions of higher education in the United States can be found in other countries; the important difference is that in the United States they are offered in the same institution and are given academic recognition. The probability is that, despite the increased provision of practical courses, the actual number of students who pursue studies which are part of the academic tradition is far larger than in the nineteenth century while a whole series of new, modern, or practical courses have been introduced to meet the great variety of interests which the increasing body of students brings to the colleges and universities and which the changing social needs demand.

II

The principle that education should be adapted to the needs of society is not new in the history of American culture. In the middle of the eighteenth century Benjamin Franklin had already proposed a new type of educational institution in which students would learn those things that were likely to be "most useful and most ornamental," in contrast to the curriculum of the Latin Grammar School and college which he and others considered more ornamental than useful.

The period between the establishment of the Republic and 1800 was one of fruitful discussions of the type of education best "adapted to the genius of the government of the United States." The

view that was generally accepted was that the traditional curriculum should be rejected as aristocratic and monarchical in favour of an education which would be universal and republican. Such a system, in the words of Benjamin Rush, one of the founders of American medical education, "would greatly increase the number of students in our colleges, and thereby extend the benefits of education throughout every part of our country," and "the excellency of knowledge would then be obvious to everybody, because it would be constantly applicable to some of the necessary and useful purposes of life, and particularly to the security and order of wise and just government."

Of many others who wrote in the same vein at this time it is possible to cite only Samuel Knox, who in an "Essay on Education" urged that liberal education should have "two great leading objectives to which it should be adapted, the improvement of the mind, and the attainment of those arts on which the welfare, prosperity, and happiness of society depend."

The nineteenth century thus opened with certain well-established principles. Of these the first was a strong faith in education and the ideal of equality of educational opportunities in contrast to the "aristocratic" or class organization which had been brought over from Europe. The second principle arose from a widespread feeling that the studies provided by the colleges were themselves "aristocratic" or "monarchical" and helped to perpetuate class distinctions. The third principle was that new types of studies must be introduced

to meet the conditions of new times and a new environment. Since the resources of this new environment were still to be explored, developed, and exploited, the new studies, it was felt, must include those sciences and other subjects which would promote the progressive improvement of the economic life of a new nation.

Some years were to elapse before all these principles were put into practice. In the meantime the traditional studies were perpetuated in the small denominational colleges which sprang up everywhere as new communities arose with the advancement of the frontier westward. By 1850 Henry Tappan, president of the University of Michigan, could write "we have multiplied colleges so as to place them at every man's door." These colleges may have lacked in quality but they performed an important service in disseminating the ideal of accessibility and cheapness of education open to all. "They have trained the public mind," wrote another educator, "to feel that a College, in each district of convenient extent, is a blessing to the people. It is therefore placed beyond all doubt that our country, in the whole extent of it, is to be a land of colleges." The denominational colleges of the United States, which today make up a large part of the number of institutions of higher education, have in fact remained essentially liberal arts colleges chiefly because the cost of other types of education is too often beyond their means.

III

The demands of the new times for types of education that would be of

direct practical benefit to the country did not go unheeded. The first technical college in the country, The Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, was established in Troy, N.Y., in 1824 to instruct "persons who may choose to apply themselves in the application of science to the common purposes of life." Union College in New York State offered a scientific course in the same year and added civil engineering in 1845. The Lawrence Scientific School was opened at Harvard in 1849 and was followed a few years later by the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale, and other similar institutions elsewhere.

It was, however, the state universities, dependent for support on the goodwill of the public, that gradually began to modify the traditional curriculum and to adapt themselves more readily to the demands of their clientele. State universities had already been established or plans for their erection had been drawn up before 1825 in a number of states, including Alabama, Georgia, Indiana, Michigan, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Vermont. The movement was hastened by grants of land made to each new Western State to endow a university. As a result of the Morrill Act of 1862 a number of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts were established and most of them gradually expanded into institutions which provide all aspects of education at the higher level.

By the middle of the nineteenth century another innovation of great social significance had already begun to be tolerated if not universally accepted. This was the recognition that women were also entitled to opportunities for college education. By 1840 there were

seven institutions of collegiate rank for women; by 1860 the number had risen to 61. In addition men's colleges opened their doors to women—Oberlin College in 1833; Antioch College in 1853; and the State University of Iowa in 1856. Despite the accessibility and cheapness of college education the enrollments were not high, and for many reasons. The period preceding the Civil War was one of great activity; men's minds were still devoted not to enriching life but to providing for its sustenance. Learning was looked upon as a luxury which was of little value in meeting the immediate and urgent demands for exploiting the resources of the country. The school of experience, it was held, provided a better training for life than did any theoretical or academic education, which continued to be looked upon as aristocratic. Nor, although colleges had been established everywhere, was there yet an adequate supply of secondary schools to give the necessary preparation for entrance to them.

The conflict between the academic tradition of learning and the practical demands of a society with an expanding economy did not escape attention. In a pamphlet on "University Education" (1850), President Henry Tappan of the University of Michigan, after discussing the reasons why the colleges were not attracting students, put forward a strong plea for the cultivation of pure scholarship on the model of the German universities. "The question in education, as in religion," he wrote, "is not what men desire, but what they need. This must govern us in determining the form and quality of our educational institutions.

Now when it is asked, what we need in the way of education, we may reply, either that we need to fit men well for professional life, and for the general business of the world in the mechanical arts, in agriculture, and commerce; or that we need to cultivate the human mind according to the philosophical or ideal conception; or, we might reply that we need all in due order and proportion. The last reply, unquestionably, would be the correct one."

But even while Tappan was writing, another trend was already well under way—"the idea of fitting our colleges to the temper of the multitude," or "to adapt the article to the wants of the community." In his "Report to the Corporation of Brown University on Changes in the System of Education" (1850) President Francis Wayland deplored the fact that the colleges were not making their proper contribution to the economic needs of the country. The enrollments in the colleges were falling because they were not providing the education desired by the people. He recommended courses in the science of teaching, principles of agriculture, and the application of science to the arts in order that the work of the University might be adapted "to the wants of the community." Thus in the middle of the nineteenth century the role of higher education in American society was already recognized; education had to be adapted to the wants of the community and the college had to be fitted to the student.

IV

Here are to be found the reasons for the introduction of the elective system

in American colleges which was popularized by President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard College. The desire to fill the colleges came first; the philosophical and psychological arguments were nationalizations after the event. The further expansion of the colleges came after the Morrill Act in 1862 provided for the establishment of agricultural and mechanic arts colleges in all the States of the Union. The leading object of these colleges, many of which became or were merged with state universities was to be "without excluding other scientific and classical studies . . . to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and mechanical arts." Such an education would enable farmers to raise two blades of grass instead of one, would promote cheap scientific education, would enable railroads to pay dividends and the people to bear the enormous cost of national government, and increase the loveliness of the American landscape." Here was a definite recognition of the principle that the function of education was to contribute to the progressive improvement of national welfare, a principle that many years later was defined in the phrase that "Education Brings Social Dividends."

The aims and purposes of higher education were determined not by the academic tradition but by the conditions imposed by the demands of an expanding frontier and a concept of democracy which would not tolerate the existence of a leisure class or even of an intellectual élite. The popular attitude to the intellectual was already noted by Emerson in his lecture on "The American Scholar" (1836): "There goes in the

world a notion that the scholar should be a recluse, a valetudinarian—as unfit for any handiwork of public labour as a penknife for an axe. The so-called "practical men" sneer at speculative men, as if, because they speculate or *see*, they could do nothing." The distinction between the highbrow and the lowbrow and the contempt for "brain trusts" is not new in American life.

De Tocqueville, more clearly than any American, had already noted the practical bent of the American mind. "In aristocratic ages," he wrote in his *Democracy in America*, "science is more particularly called upon to furnish gratification to the mind; in democracies, to the body. You may be sure the more a nation is democratic, enlightened, and free the greater will be the number of these interested promoters of scientific genius, and the more will discoveries immediately applicable to productive industries confer gain, fame and even power to their authors. . . . In a community thus organized it may easily be conceived that the human mind may be led insensibly to the neglect of theory; and that it is urged, on the contrary, with unparalleled vehemence to the applications of science, or at least to that portion of theoretical science which is necessary to those who make such applications. In vain will some innate propensity raise the mind towards loftier spheres of the intellect, interest draws it down to the middle zone. There it may develop all its energy and restless activity, there it may engender all its wonders. These very Americans, who have not discovered one of the general laws of mechanics, have introduced into navigation an engine

which changes the aspect of the world."

Thus the pragmatic sanction already dominated higher education long before pragmatism was exalted into a philosophy, and the American began to ask "Knowledge for What?" a century before Professor Robert S. Lynd published his book under that title.

With the conquest of the frontier which was achieved by 1890 a new expansion began. The rapid development of industry through the applications of science, urban concentration, and the increased wealth of the country, had two consequences. A new era of educational expansion began; high schools were everywhere established and provided the preparation needed to enter college. The spread of the elective system in colleges demanded larger faculties, more buildings, and the necessary equipment. These were provided by the donations of large sums to private institutions or by increased appropriations from public funds to state universities. One of the major functions of the successful college or university president was to raise funds and the most successful appeal was in terms of the contributions of the graduates to the advancement of the material and spiritual welfare of the nation. Wealthy donors who were themselves college graduates or who recognized the value of a college education were more ready than ever before to provide the necessary means for the expansion of higher education. Industrialists began to realize the value of scientific research as farmers had already recognized the value of the contributions that came from the agricultural colleges and experimental stations.

At the same time the developments in federal, state, and local governments led to the addition of new fields of study, as did the pressure of new social problems. The colleges and universities expanded the scope of studies to meet demands, and the increase in the number of high school students ready to continue their education compelled the institutions for higher education to provide courses to meet their needs. This expansion was made possible by the elective system with the result that the traditional concept of a liberal or general education gradually lost its meaning in the face of demands for specific preparation for professional and other careers.

It was this type of expansion that was criticized by Dr. Flexner. Nevertheless, the claims of scholarship were not ignored. After the middle of the nineteenth century, largely under the influence of the observation of German universities, a movement began to provide advanced studies beyond the college stage. In 1876 the creation of Johns Hopkins University, made possible by a fortune accumulated by Johns Hopkins, introduced a new direction in higher education. Under the guidance of its first president, Daniel Coit Gilman, the purpose of the new university was "to enlarge the resources of American scholarship" in "a private endowment free from ecclesiastical or political control, where from the beginning the old and the new, the humanities and the sciences, theory and practice, could be generously promoted." Opportunities now began to be available for the training of those who would advance scholarship, engage in research, and become teachers in

colleges and universities of the day.

Hence in estimating the contributions of higher education to American society the colleges and universities must be taken together. The large majority of students attend the colleges and on graduation are distributed in all types of occupation. For there is this important difference between the United States and other countries that those who have enjoyed the privilege of a college education do not look upon themselves as a class entitled to a particular niche in the economic organization of the nation. The smaller number of graduates continue their special preparation in the universities for the professions or for careers that require further training in the various fields of scholarship and research.

V

Partly as a result of publicity conducted by the colleges themselves, partly because of the success of college graduates in all walks of life, both in peace and war, the social and economic value of a college education has come to be widely recognized. Since 1900 the increased enrollments in colleges and universities have been spectacular and without parallel in the history of education. Beginning with 167,999 in 1900 the numbers rose to 276,654 in 1910, to 462,445 in 1920, to 924,275 in 1930 and to 1,350,905 in 1937-38. Since the end of World War II the numbers in all institutions above the high schools—two-year junior colleges, teachers colleges, technical schools, four-year colleges, professional schools, and graduate schools—have risen to about 2,500,000, of whom 1,000,000 are ex-service men and women.

The latest expansion has, of course, been due to the provisions for ex-service men and women, which may result in establishing a precedent for the future provision of a national system of scholarships to help able students without means to continue their education. Even with the social approval of the traditional practice of working one's way through college and university, it is now realized that too many able students are unable to take advantage of the opportunities for higher education through lack of funds. To meet the needs of large numbers of high school graduates not likely to profit from four years of college education or who desire a shorter preparation for specific occupations, two-year junior colleges are being multiplied throughout the country, some attached to high schools, some independent, but the majority offering what are known as "terminal" courses, and some providing the first two years of a liberal arts course.

Reference has been made earlier to the effect of the elective system on the tradition of a general, liberal education. The most serious result was the tendency towards premature specialization or the election of a narrow course of studies. This situation was further aggravated by a certain trend in favor of the sciences and technology. Shortly before the outbreak of World War II a movement was begun to promote the study of the humanities. Gradually the movement was broadened to a consideration of the meaning of a liberal education in modern society, in which the advances of science and technology had captured the imagination of the public. Committees were

appointed in a large number of colleges and universities to consider an appropriate curriculum for all students, irrespective of their future professions or occupations. Regional and national conferences were held.

The Harvard Report on "A General Education in a Free Society" is the best known volume in the vast literature which was accumulated on the subject during the war years. The recommendations of the Harvard Committee that all students should have a general education in the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences represented the general consensus of opinion, reached independently by similar committees in other institutions. The strongest plea for a place for the humanities is, paradoxically, to be found in the report of a committee to President Roosevelt, "Science, the Endless Frontier," which recommended the establishment of a National Scientific Foundation with federal funds.

The reorganization of the college curriculum, which had in fact been started at Columbia University soon after World War I, is proceeding throughout the country. Its success, however, will depend upon a change of attitude on the part of college teachers. One result of a requirement that college teachers must hold the Ph.D. to be appointed to professorial rank and of the practice of promotion on the basis of research has been that college teachers have tended to become narrow specialists. The revised college courses have an important influence on graduate schools, which have in the past, largely on the model of the German universities, over-emphasized narrow specialization. A movement is

already under way to broaden the preparation required for the Ph.D. and to promote interdisciplinary studies. Thus in the study of foreign languages it is suggested that more attention be devoted to the study of the culture of the country whose language is studied. Whether a current proposal that candidates for the Ph.D., which has virtually become a license to teach in colleges and universities, should be prepared for their work of teaching will be adopted is still an open question. One point is clear, however, and that is that college teachers will have to realize that they are not teaching subjects or training future research workers or specialists, but that they are educating men and women. The American student is not docile and is only too ready to ask what the good of this or that subject may be. Impatient with the study of the past merely because it is the past, he desires to see its meaning or relevance for the present. The solution of the problem is not simple, nor is the answer to be found in immersion in the immediately contemporary and changing, which some theorists are inclined to advocate. The problem is there and was clearly stated by Professor T. M. Greene of Princeton as follows:

"Our young people are eager to be modern and this desire is surely commendable. But all too often they merely succeed in being contemporary. . . . Our students who lack historical perspective achieve not modernity of outlook but only contemporaneity; and this means that since the immediate present quickly slips into the past, they are forever getting out of date."

American education has always been

conscious of its social role and has sought to be responsive to social needs. I have attempted to show the interplay between higher education and American society. The advancement of scholarship and research in every area of intellectual endeavor, ancient and modern, is not neglected. The quality and standards of American scholarship are beginning to be appreciated everywhere. But the American college is unique and has no exact counterpart anywhere except in those nations that have adopted it as a model. It is becoming increasingly an institution whose aim is to give a broad, general education that will enable its students to have some understanding of the world in which they live.

This aim has been forcefully reiterated in the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, published two months ago. In performing its social role, says the Commission, "education will . . . achieve its ends more successfully if its programs and policies grow out of, and are relevant to the characteristics and needs of contemporary society. Effective democratic education will deal directly with current problems. It is essential today that education come decisively to grips with the world wide crisis of mankind."

The goals for higher education are, according to the Commission, "to bring to all people of the nation:

Education for a fuller realization of democracy in every phrase of living.

Education directly and explicitly for international understanding and cooperation.

Education for the application of creative imagination and trained intelligence

to the solution of social problems and to the administration of public affairs."

The function of higher education is not limited to the preparation of an intellectual élite nor primarily to the promotion of scholarship and research, although both aims are recognized as contributory to the fundamental aim, which in the words of the Committee's Report is stated as follows:

"America's strength at home and abroad in the years ahead will be determined in large measure by the quality and the effectiveness of the education it provides for its citizens."

It is only on the basis of the potential contribution of the colleges and universities to American society that the Com-

mission has had the courage to recommend an increase in the number of students to 4,600,000 by 1960—4,000,000 in colleges of all types and 600,000 in graduate schools.

Discussing The Social Role of Higher Education in their recent report the Commission declared that "American colleges and universities must envision a much larger role for higher education in the national life. They can no longer consider themselves merely the instrument for producing an intellectual élite; they must become the means by which every citizen, youth, and adult is enabled and encouraged to carry his education, formal and informal, as far as his native capacities permit."

As the children are now, so will the sovereigns soon be. How can we expect the fabric of government to stand, if vicious materials are daily wrought into its framework? Education must prepare our citizens . . . to fill all the manifold relations of life. For this end it must be universal. The whole land must be watered with the streams of knowledge. It is not enough to have, here and there, a beautiful fountain playing in palace gardens; but let it come like the abundant fatness of the clouds upon the thirsting earth.—HORACE MANN, in Lecture on Education.

The Role of Objectives in Higher Education

ORDWAY TEAD

THE BIBLICAL statement that of the making of books there is no end can be paraphrased to a similar truth that of the making of college objectives there is no end.

And my theme will be suggested by invoking another familiar saying that there is many a slip 'twixt the cup and the lip. In other words, it is one thing to state desirable objectives; it is something else again to be sure that they are given effect. And the major problem with which I am here concerned is as to the ways and means of translating statements of college objectives into the actual performance of suitable educational activities.

Formulations of college objectives add up today to an embarrassment of riches—an observation not intended in any way to belittle their importance. It has to be recognized, however, that such formulations are easy to make; they are usually cast in noble, beguiling, and general phrases; their very nobility and generality are deceptive because of the human tendency to assume that handsome is as handsome says. Also, the diversity of objectives to be examined readily becomes confusing to those who read them, even before the operating problem of implementing them arises.

Presented as we are, therefore, with this seeming embarrassment of riches as to what colleges are trying to do, it

seems worthwhile to explore the role of objectives in terms which place less stress upon what they say than on what they do operationally in making college education more effective.

I propose, therefore, to consider the following facets of the problem:

Why do we have objectives?

What are examples of typical expressions of these from differing points of view?

How have they come to be formulated?

Under what conditions do they actually have any relation to changes in the method and content of instruction?

Do we know from experience how it is that formulations of objective, aim, or purpose, do in fact get translated into instructional changes of a significant character?

Also, do we have any adequate ways of evaluating the worth of new or different objectives?

In other words, is the whole question of what goes on educationally a matter which can be tested in order to determine whether outcomes in the minds and behavior of students are better or worse as objectives are studied, shaped, and altered?

My reason for posing these questions is that a mere scrutinizing of the abundance of such formulations as have been made in recent years may supply less

evidence of educational advance in and of itself, than of the wishfulness and the verbal felicity of those who may have the boldness to proffer such new aims.

I do not question that statements of educational objectives can serve a useful purpose. Whether they do or not depends on a variety of factors which I propose to consider. But, generally speaking, when, as, and if, such statements can come to have some close relation to educational behavior, they can clearly serve as something of a compass, something of a bill of rights, something of a charter of authority as to the obligations, powers, and techniques controlling those who conduct the education.

Indeed, it is important to recognize that objectives can have value at several different levels of operation. They might have some guiding value in relation to a national educational policy which for good or ill our country does not yet possess. They clearly can have an institutional value in that each college would wisely enunciate what its specific purposes are. Beyond that there is the objective of an individual department or division of instruction. There is the objective of a specific full year or half year course in a particular subject; and there should be the objective of each specific class hour.

It is on the whole with institutional, long range objectives that I am here primarily concerned.

The Value in Diversity of Statements of Objectives

The question may well be initially faced as to the desirability of the wide variety of statements of college objec-

tives. The time has certainly not yet come when we can safely say that the present multiplicity is undesirable. Rather our awareness of the importance of such statements is relatively so newly found that we stand to profit by as much diversity here as is consistent with broad ends which any substantial number of people, educators and others, stand ready to defend. They can thus be a stimulus to exploratory thinking even before they reach the stage of shaping any particular curriculum.

In our American tradition, moreover, there is undoubtedly value in varied approaches to the stating and realizing of objectives. And to characterize some of the different types of formulations should be helpful to fuller understanding. Indeed, the present danger is not in diversity but in too great fixity or too great inflexibility of aims that may be held to by those in any particular institutions over too long a time without periodic re-examination and appraisal.

Several kinds of possible justifiable diversity of objectives may be initially noted as having potential value—or at least excuse for being. Perhaps the largest two way division today is that to be found as between colleges conducted under public support and those privately controlled. There is the further division between solely undergraduate colleges, usually smaller in size and in smaller communities, and those which are affiliates of a great university.

There is, finally, the distinction between objectives to be observed in the so-called church related colleges and in those which have no explicit sectarian affiliation.

It is impossible within the scope of this discussion to spell out all the possible differences in general objectives as they might arise under these different institutional settings. That certain differences can be justified here is obvious almost by definition. But beyond this obvious point, I see no intrinsic reason why the basic approach to and content of objectives of these several different kinds of colleges have necessarily to be profoundly different. The possible theoretical difference between colleges supported by religious bodies and those not so supported is no doubt an exception to this statement, although operationally the differences are often less pronounced.

This similarity seems true despite the fact that the quality of educational *experience* in a small college in a country community may clearly result for the student in something quite different from his total experience in the college of a Columbia or Harvard University, even though on paper the objectives may read similarly.

A deeper reason for diversity is that a genuine confusion or at least lack of agreement among competent students as to what is desired and how it is desired to achieve it, are facts of our educational scene. The disparity stems from profound philosophical and theological causes. And to attempt at this time to discourage exploration both as to ends and as to means would be like trying to order a moratorium on scientific discovery. Rather we shall all be the gainers by the contributions of diverse, and indeed of contradictory, formulations.

Kinds of Objectives

Summarily viewed, we find a number of broad categories of objectives. The first type of difference is that between *general* statements of independent thinkers designed for wide public enlightenment and formulations made *ad hoc* to clarify policy for a single institution. One could, for example, cull much of a general nature from such a volume as Doctor Robert Ulrich's *Three Thousand Years of Educational Wisdom*.¹ And the illumination and inspiration of such good historic utterances can be great. As of our own day, Alfred North Whitehead and John Dewey come at once to mind as generalizers of objectives which have without doubt had large influence.

Another division *sui generis* is that between objectives which have either a philosophical or *a priori* theological basis and those more inductively derived. Such induction may grow out of psychological, educational (methodologically viewed), or nationalistic premises.

The broad division between the intellectualistic, the "character" and the total personality approach, is another way of characterizing certain features of familiar differentiation. Indeed, so much to the fore is the controversy about these alternatives that it is worthwhile to let Chancellor Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago set forth his intellectualistic position as follows:

One purpose of education is to draw out the elements of our common human nature. These elements are the same in any time or place. The notion of educating a man to live in any particular time or place, to adjust him to any particular environment,

¹ Harvard University Press, 1947.

is therefore foreign to a true conception of education.

Education implies teaching. Teaching implies knowledge. Knowledge is truth. The truth is everywhere the same. Hence education should be everywhere the same. I do not overlook the possibilities of differences in organization, in administration, in local habits and customs. These are details. I suggest that the heart of any course of study designed for the whole people will be, if education is rightly understood, the same at any time, in any place, under any political, social or economic conditions. Even the administrative details are likely to be similar because all societies have generic similarity.

If education is rightly understood, it will be understood as the cultivation of the intellect. The cultivation of the intellect is the same good for all men in all societies. It is, moreover, the good for which all other goods are only means. Material prosperity, peace and civil order, justice and the moral virtues are means to the cultivation of the intellect.¹

As brilliant an exponent as any of the character objective is the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford, Sir Richard Livingston. In his volume, *Some Tasks for Education*,² he says:

It is not surprising that human character has not improved, for we have never taken its improvement seriously in hand. We have spent time and careful thought on physical health; but what have we done comparable for the health of the character? Our system of spiritual or ethical medicine (if I may so phrase it) is in much the same position as medicine itself in the eighteenth century; good in patches, but wholly inadequate and generally unprogressive, and needing, if any

real advance is to be made, hard thought, exact study, and methodical treatment.

And in his lecture, "Plato and Modern Education,"³ he pronounces as follows:

Finally—and most important—everyone needs a philosophy of life, a sense of values by which to judge and use the gifts of material civilization. The perfectly educated man would have a standard, a perception of values, in every province—physical, aesthetic, intellectual, moral; in his profession or occupation; in personal, national and international life. He would know the first-rate in all of them and run no risk of being deceived by the inferior. Further, as far as this is possible, he would have a hierarchy of values, so that lesser did not dominate greater goods. No age needs a sense of the first-rate more than our own. We are individualists; without standards to control it, individualism is apt to reveal itself as eccentricity and to end in chaos. We are free; without standards freedom only gives greater latitude of error. Our possessions and opportunities multiply; without standards we have no idea of their relative value, no principle of choice among them, except the whim of the moment. No doubt the perfectly educated man does not exist and never will exist. But the quality of a civilization depends on the number of people in it who approximate to this standard, and we should at least set such an ideal before us.

Another kind of classification is possible in terms of an emphasis in aims upon the passing on of a total cultural heritage and equipment for dealing with a presumably known set of social facts and forces as contrasted with an emphasis upon education as directed toward social reorganization or the reconstruction of society. Advocates of the latter position have a strong exponent, for example, in the writings among others of

¹The Higher Learning in America, Yale University Press, 1936, pp. 66-7.

²Oxford University Press, 1946, p. 33.

³Cambridge University Press, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1944, p. 25.

George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University.

In current curriculum building, we see the influence of aims which may be characterized in these three ways—the offering of a common body of needed content to enable the student to function in our times, of which Columbia College of Columbia University stands as the most impressive witness; the "student centered" approach which builds on individual student interests and capabilities of which Sarah Lawrence is an outstanding exemplar; and the "functional" approach of building around life interests and activities such as citizenship, parenthood, vocation, etc., of which Stephens College is the proud devotee.

Each of these types proceeds from objectives more or less clearly formulated and definitely controlling educational policy and practice.

I mention without elaboration the further possibility of which Soviet Russia supplies us with an impressive illustration, namely, of objectives shaped by ends of national philosophy and policy, in which the ends of the "state" are paramount.

Samples of Objectives

Coming now to a brief view of representative, individual statements in the current scene, the following by Professor Howard Mumford Jones is interesting for its concreteness:

I suggest then, that American colleges ought to consider some such program as this:

¹ *Education and World Tragedy*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1946, p. 91.

² The Macmillan Company, New York, 1946, p. 436.

1. Professional or vocational training for all.
2. The study of the theory of science and of the application of scientific discoveries to our technology.
3. The assumptions and workings of representative government, particularly in the United States and in the British Commonwealth of Nations.
4. The study of Russia.
5. The study of the Orient.
6. The study of personal relationships in modern society.²

In the light of Professor Jones's formulation, it is interesting to note the emphasis in the following paragraph from Professor F. S. C. Northrop's *The Meeting of East and West*:¹

The task of the contemporary world falls into four major parts: (1) the relating of the East and the West; (2) the similar merging of the Latin and Anglo-Saxon cultures; (3) the mutual reinforcement of democratic and communistic values; and (4) the reconciliation of the true and valuable portions of the Western medieval and modern worlds. Running through all these special tasks is the more general one, made imperative with the advent of the atomic bomb, of harmonizing the sciences and the humanities.

The emphasis in the statements both of Professor Jones and Professor Northrop gains added importance in the light of an interesting and forthright critical statement about American educational aims expressed by a South American scholar:

But the feeling that we are without roots, or, what is still more serious, that our roots tie us to a world different from that which surrounds us, is a common ailment in both Americas. Hence, in the case of the United States, education has been conceived as a huge laboratory for the absorption into the

North American nationality of people from all parts of the world, having the most varied and unmatched cultural, linguistic, ethnic and religious backgrounds. . . .

Contrary to what is generally said, the yield of the great melting pot of the United States has not been left to chance. Whether they wanted to or not, the successive waves of immigrants who arrived at the shores of North America had to fit themselves to the mold of the civilization established by the first English colonists on the Atlantic Coast. A code was thus evolved which has permitted one hundred and fifty million people, whose affinity is not based on any of the postulates which contributed to the formation of the old nations of Europe, to fit together, in the environment of moral and psychological monotony which characterizes the United States.

By refusing to assimilate the non-European ethnic groups—Negroes, Indians and Asiatics—the United States, though it has achieved organic unity of the nation for the moment, has only put off for the future a problem bristling with difficulties.⁷

One of the most widely heralded recent statements of objectives of higher education is that to be found in the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Because of the official character of this utterance and because it draws upon a widely accepted contemporary view of educational purposes, it is worthy of reproduction here:

1. To develop for the regulation of one's personal and civic life a code of behavior based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideas.

⁷Juan Oropesa, "Contrasting Philosophies of Education North and South," *Points of View*, 10, September, 1947, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C.

⁸*Higher Education for American Democracy*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1948 (Vol. I, ch. III, pp. 50-57).

2. To participate actively as an informed and responsible citizen in solving the social, economic, and political problems of one's community, State and Nation.
3. To recognize the interdependence of the different peoples of the world and one's personal responsibility for fostering international understanding and peace.
4. To understand the common phenomena in one's physical environment, to apply habits of scientific thought to both personal and civic problems, and to appreciate the implications of scientific discoveries for human welfare.
5. To understand the ideas of others and to express one's own effectively.
6. To attain a satisfactory emotional and social adjustment.
7. To maintain and improve his own health and to co-operate actively and intelligently in solving community health problems.
8. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music and other cultural activities as expressions of personal and social experience, and to participate to some extent in some form of creative activity.
9. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.
10. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will permit one to use to the full his particular interests and abilities.
11. To acquire and use the skills and habits involved in critical and constructive thinking.⁸

Further evidence of a growing consensus of outlook upon objectives is indicated by the following from the excellent volume, *Higher Education in the South*:⁹

The co-operative studies on which this report is based are in general agreement that the aims of collegiate instruction are:

1. To enable the student to acquire a relatively large amount of information and skill (physical and mental) and to further such attainment by developing habits of sustained intellectual effort in the mastery of subject-matter and skill;
2. To develop clearness and accuracy of thought and expression;
3. To develop intellectual independence and initiative together with the ability to form sound judgments;
4. To establish fundamental interests which result in continuous intellectual curiosity and activity and in respect for the intellectual way of life.
5. To inculcate a sense of social responsibility based upon a sound conception of human values;
6. To develop aesthetic, moral, and spiritual standards and values, thereby permanently elevating and enriching life.

Coming now to formulations which have been derived close to the scene of action in the individual institution, I shall content myself with three representative offerings. The first is from the widely known *General Education in a Free Society*, a report of a Harvard Faculty Committee on which policy changes have been based.¹⁰

Education looks both to the nature of knowledge and to the good of man in society. It is to the latter aspect that we shall now turn our attention—more par-

ticularly to the traits and characteristics of mind fostered by education.

By characteristics we mean aims so important as to prescribe how general education should be carried out and which abilities should be sought above all others in every part of it. These abilities, in our opinion, are: *to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values*. They are not in practice separable and are not to be developed in isolation. Nor can they be even analyzed in separation. Each is an indispensable coexistent function of a sanely growing mind.

Amherst College has published (January, 1945) its *Report of the Faculty Committee on Long Range Policy*, and here again, we have a document which has been put directly into use in shaping the reorganized curriculum of the post-war period.

In this report we find the following:¹¹

If a liberal education is to be comprehensive, it should be organized in such a way as to unify the most fundamental cultural interests of the society in which we live. The curriculum, we believe, should be organized around three basic foci of interest: the mathematical, physical and biological sciences, history and the social sciences, and literature and the fine arts. The organization and exposition of subjects should be in terms of these great divisions rather than in terms of a number of diverse departments and a multitude of separate courses. Every student should be required to do at least as much work in each of these three divisions of the curriculum as will give him the sense that he has a community of knowledge and interests with all of his fellow students. Nothing is more in contradiction with the purpose of a liberal education than a curriculum composed of large numbers of discrete and uncoordi-

¹⁰ The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 1947, p. 71.

¹¹ Harvard University Printing Office, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1945, pp. 64-5.

¹² Pp. 25-6.

nated courses all treated as though they were of equal importance. This kind of laissez-faire program is a confession of intellectual bankruptcy. That a faculty should not prescribe certain courses as an essential part of a liberal education is as if a physician should refuse to prescribe specifically for his patient on the ground that all the available remedies would undoubtedly have *some* effect. It is the elective system more than any other thing that has led to the disconnected way of treating subjects which has done so much to destroy the vitality of our modern curriculum. If students are taught fragments, they cannot learn to think in terms of wholes. This means that the curriculum should be strictly limited in character. There should be far fewer courses than there are now in the program of the average college. To limit the number of courses is not to say that a knowledge of excluded subjects is undesirable. Everything, obviously, is worth knowing in some relation or for some purpose. But some things are in general better worth knowing because they have more relations and fulfill larger purposes than do others.

And one final exhibit is offered because of the concrete no less than comprehensive nature of the objectives defined. The following comes from the Pennsylvania State College for Women:

The areas of knowledge in which every intelligent person should acquire understanding fall conveniently into five.

1. A study of man as a human organism.
2. A study of the universe he inhabits.
3. A study of his social relationships.
4. A study of his esthetic achievements.
5. A study of his attempt to organize his experience.

The faculty at Pennsylvania College for Women regards knowledge as a means, not

an end. The end is wisdom, a deep understanding of life and an effective means of adjustment to it. Wisdom in action, therefore, requires more than acquaintance with fact; it involves the acquisition of certain basic abilities, and attitudes.

The abilities which a student is expected to acquire are:

1. The ability to express oneself clearly in speech and writing.
2. The ability to demonstrate critical insight and imagination.
3. The ability to seek out sources of information adequate to the task involved.
4. The ability to remember selectively and precisely.
5. The ability to observe with care and discrimination.
6. The ability to concentrate on a given problem until an adequate conclusion is reached.
7. The ability to make unbiased, objective judgments, based upon knowledge.
8. The ability to synthesize and correlate.
9. The ability to express oneself creatively.
10. The ability to demonstrate taste in perception.
11. The ability to apportion one's time wisely and to use it productively.
12. The ability to live and to co-operate with others.

The socially contrived attitudes which the student is expected to express in his living are:

1. Perseverance in the pursuit of knowledge and understanding.
2. Integrity in thought and action.
3. Courage to take the initiative.
4. Critical appraisal of one's abilities and achievements.
5. Understanding of and appreciation for other races and cultures.
6. Eagerness to develop spiritual insight.¹³

¹³ "Educating for Tomorrow," *Bulletin of Pennsylvania College for Women*, XLII, September, 1946, pp. 7-8.

Methods of Formulation of Objectives

I have already intimated that general philosophical or educational utterances have undoubtedly had a stimulative value upon the thinking of individual educators. But the problem of the hour is as to how single institutions fertilize their thinking for a revamping of ends and means. Typically, we find the procedures employed to be the selection of a faculty committee, instigated usually by the president or dean of the college. Such committees have in some instances been handpicked by appointment from above and in others been elected by the appropriate faculty body. And their mandates and their resources may vary considerably. Perhaps the most important features of the outstanding and influential efforts here are: first, strong encouragement and support from the administrative head; second, the accoring of sufficient time away from teaching to allow the committee or at least its chairman to do the necessary thinking, studying, interviewing, and traveling; and third, some broad initial agreement among the leaders of this effort as to the general line of policy to be followed. Here as in other types of inquiry, it is clearly necessary to have premises, and to establish the validity of the premises is one of the proper intentions of the study.

In practical terms, one of the most urgent problems is to assure that the committee is rigorously taking an attitude of concern for the *over all* educational processes of the college and is not being unduly influenced in its thinking or decisions by the special interests of the

several teachers preoccupied to protect the interests of individual departments, subjects, or favorite courses. It has not proved easy in certain institutions for faculties to rise above preconceptions and presuppositions of their own particular subject matter fields. And the generalization is warranted that the value of these faculty reports has therefore varied considerably from college to college. Indeed, there have been cases where faculties have reaffirmed existing objectives and methods despite strong minority reports to the contrary. To secure the collaboration of faculty members on a basis of disinterested educational inquiry rather than on the level of special pleading for particular subjects, is *the* condition prerequisite to progress here.

It is this consideration which lends special interest to further inquiry into the methods of helping faculties in their deliberations to transcend departmental interests and be concerned for total educational effectiveness as defined by a fresh and contemporary view of objectives for that particular institution.

How Objective and Curriculum Alterations Are Wisely Forwarded

Several conclusions emerge from first hand knowledge of the way in which some colleges have moved forward in a productive way. One conclusion is that to start with an effort to get agreement in general terms about first principles in what are essentially philosophical generalizations, is to go at it the hard way.

A second conclusion which in principle would presumably have general acceptance, is that if people are to be asked

to agree about new programs, they had better, so far as is humanly possible, be parties to the deliberations in which the programs are being formulated. This is a counsel of common sense, of democratic procedure, and of psychological wisdom. The experience of agreeing upon a course of action is at its best the result of a shared experience of discussion and reflection as to what changes are desirable. Human nature is such that if it is not to act on the basis of command, it has to act on the basis of prior desire and conviction of those involved that the proposed action is wise and good for them. And this means something more than taking a finished statement of objectives and program into a faculty meeting and asking for their acceptance.

Another general conclusion is that the process of application is desirably approached co-operatively, experimentally, and with a determination to continue in co-operative search to be sure that sound answers are in the making.

The wise chairman of one such faculty committee on the study of objectives writes me as follows:

If I had begun the meetings of our committee by asking for agreement on principles at the outset, that is, if I had said let us define our ends before we decide on our means, the committee would soon have broken into several warring groups and nothing of any importance so far as education at this college is concerned, would ever have come out of it.

The only way we can proceed in a democratic society to achieve more community is to start with whatever community of interest happens to exist and to try and find and put into effect ways of utilizing that community of interest more effectively. . . .

At the very end, after we had agreed unanimously on our practical program, I sat down and wrote what I thought in general as to the objectives which our program implied. At that point the committee found no objection to this general formulation.

This letter may seem to belie what has been suggested above about the operative importance of a faculty agreeing upon a statement of objectives. But a more penetrating analysis of what can wisely happen reveals that there have undoubtedly to be in the minds of the leaders of such a committee some fairly clear ideas as to new directions which it is desired to take. The point is not that reorganization problems are to be discussed in a philosophic vacuum, but that the emphasis in deliberation is placed upon admittedly desirable changes as to which there is some initial common sympathy because there are common agreements that improvements are necessary. Indeed, the writer of the above letter in subsequent correspondence reaffirms this very point as follows:

Only the subtle means of personal relationships will, I think, accomplish what is wanted. Given a group of people, say a president or dean and some leading faculty members, who have achieved a *prior* agreement on a program and whose ideals are at stake and whose personal prestige is involved, you have a situation where effective leadership is almost bound to occur. In a situation of that sort certain people have to assume responsibility for the *execution* of a plan. The problem, as I see it, is how to establish that sort of situation.

Obviously, no committee can be sufficiently representative to take account of *all* faculty points of view at every moment. It becomes essential strategy,

therefore, to do a good deal of conference work with departments and individuals who can naturally offer much invaluable assistance in giving detailed substance to ideas which the committee is entertaining in more general terms. In other words, the committee deliberations will be most effective if they represent a constant interweaving back and forth of committee meetings and personalized discussions with department members throughout the college.

My whole emphasis here is that statements of objectives are operationally no more valuable than their acceptance in good faith for application by those who have to do the applying. And the assumption is, of course, that usually a modern educational program may entail embarking upon methods which depart from the experience and habits of many faculty members. Efforts to carry on courses in general science supply, for example, a good instance of a kind of program problem which is often met with resistance by science teachers who have been schooled in a different tradition. And the practical steps toward alteration in science instruction for general students requires on the part of the science teachers the desire, the understanding, the experimental disposition, and the willingness to spend ample time in conference—all of which are the prior conditions of an altered program.

The same situation prevails to a greater or less degree in the changing of curricular procedures in all subject areas.

The faculty of Columbia College in their valuable study after twenty-five

years of struggling with "general" courses, supplies a documentation of the conclusions I have set forth about how objectives are translated into effective action. As Dean Harry J. Carman reminds us in his Preface to that study,¹³ "I feel it a pleasant duty to recall that the Columbia College curriculum here anatomized is not the work solely of one mind or one committee or even one Faculty now in charge; it has been a collaborative enterprise which for a generation has drawn on the thought and energies of many men."

In short, effective application of new educational proposals requires the active and willing involvement of the teachers affected. It requires this from the very outset; it requires this continuously. And all concerned must be prepared to take the enormous amount of time needed for self-criticism, for mutual criticism, for experimental efforts which may have to be abandoned, and for an eagerness to profit by similar experience wherever it can be found in other institutions which have faced the same problems. More than that, programs have to be kept fluid. Methods of measuring results should be considered and appraisals of results should be rigorously prosecuted. There is, in short, no easy and rapid road to the transferring of objectives from a report into classroom conduct. And any meritorious proposals deserve a trial of at least three or four college generations in order to have any comparative basis for judging the wisdom or success of the program.

Also, a detail of no minor importance is that faculty members who remain unconvinced or who are patently ill

¹³ *A College Program in Action*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1946.

equipped or intransigent about joining in any new program, have in some way to be coped with, so that the program is not being subtly obstructed by the carping criticism of the disaffected. Some institutions can afford to build their labors around such teachers and leave them to their own traditional tasks. Others have successfully given leaves of absence for a year's study to help equip men for new assignments. And others have found, out of the experiences of the past war, that certain teachers can be more versatile than they had themselves realized. But to provide some way to prevent the teachers who will not or cannot implement new objectives from sabotaging the program, is *essential*.

Evaluative Procedures

Final emphasis should now be given to the problem of evaluation and appraisal to which I have alluded. There is the problem of the evaluation of the soundness of any specific formulation of objectives for a given institution. There is next the added problem of how well these objectives are being translated into action. And, finally, the vital and all too often ignored question as to how beneficial the results of application are in terms of the quality of life subsequently experienced by the students who have been educated under a specific plan. On all three counts, we are still in the elementary stages of knowledge as to ways and means.

¹⁴ An interesting attempt in this direction has been made by Doctor Frederick Rogers in a pamphlet published January 10, 1945, in California, entitled, "A Rational Approach to Aims in Education."

With regard to the soundness of any particular formulation of objectives, it is not here my purpose to occupy the role of critic. This paper is not designed to be a comparative appraisal of individual statements of objectives or of the philosophies behind them. I am rather pressing the point that we need more study to help us determine how good any given statement is and how we know it is good. And obviously such judgments and such study depend upon the ultimate social philosophies of those conducting the inquiry.

It does, however, seem logical that at least the educational objectives of single institutions should bear a demonstrably close relation to the purposes and aspirations of the nation within which the institution functions. Yet even here we find that within the frame of a democratic nation like our own, there is room for considerable difference of view as to the statement of democratic objectives and accompanying methods as they may seem valid in different institutions.

That it may eventually be possible to make some further statement of *criterio* of good aims is hopefully true; but that this has been satisfactorily undertaken in any sources with which I am familiar is not yet the case.¹⁴

How Effective Is the Application?

The effectiveness with which fresh objectives are given concrete expression in any particular institution is a relatively simple problem. Theoretically, it calls for some grasp of both ends and means on the part of trustees, administrators, and teachers. In actuality, however, the

faculty and its leaders, especially those who have had a formative influence in any program of curricular reorganization, will be best equipped to appraise the relation of specific action to aspiration. And this emphatically requires that there be those who constantly maintain a critical and comprehensive view of the over all operation of the program, and who are at pains to keep sufficiently in touch with all its parts as they together impinge on student personality. Also, occasionally to bring in for consultation some friendly critic sympathetic with the newly applied objectives has sometimes proved to be beneficial.

To some undetermined extent, also, it is true that the students themselves should be able to voice some significant opinion about the satisfactions, intellectual and otherwise, which the revised program is bringing for them. Student judgments have proved on numerous campuses to have been exceedingly perceptive on such issues. But much depends upon the way in which their opinion is sought, the mood of responsibility in which they voice their judgments, and the comparative experience they can draw upon in making judgments.

In general, however, it seems true that a combination of faculty and student judgments to the effect that a program is proceeding satisfactorily can be a reasonably sound index of a program's success in so far as that is to be measured by its fulfillment of accepted objectives.

It is when we reach the third question that we are left with no landmarks, no objective measures, no devices of ap-

praisal, subjective or objective, which have thus far stood the test of time. It is true that there have been various studies of the results of college education in terms of income earned, relative numbers in *Who's Who*, leisure time habits and similar tests. But such studies do not really address themselves to the heart of the problem. For what we would like to know is, how and to what degree different academic programs really do comparatively give beneficial shape and guidance to the unfolding of body, mind, and spirit. And sooner or later, it is to be earnestly hoped that studies can be undertaken over a twenty to thirty year period and with some objectivity of measuring methods, which may supply more clues on this score than exist at present. For the painful truth is that the estimations of educational success attained under different programs remains still largely in the realm of opinion. This is not to say that we are completely without guides or criteria. And it would seem that with a growing body of knowledge about the nature of society and about the nature of man in society, we will be able to come closer and closer to a body of educational practice which will have increasing efficacy under defined premises of defensible aims.

Conclusion

As the work of faculty study of educational programs goes forward in increasing volume in the next few years under all the pressures for the improved social competence of college graduates, it will be important to realize that the role of objectives is, if I may say so, both

absolute and relative.

It is absolute in the sense that we may gradually hope to attain a wider sense of agreement as to the philosophical presuppositions which underlie our thinking about program. And it is relative in the sense that, as the above discussion has shown, college teachers may be expected to reach an agreement more readily upon matters of program than upon the formalized statements of objectives which may derive from such programs. And in the present state of our knowledge, widely differing kinds of program can undoubtedly serve good ends and yield good satisfactions, especially since the ends and satisfactions are at present so relatively viewed both by college teachers and by society in general.

The central theme of this discussion, therefore, has been the vital need for a sharing in an open-minded and experimental way by *all* the teachers involved, in the thinking and planning as well as the operating of revised programs.

It is, finally, to be hoped that as the

work of reorganizing the graduate instruction of prospective college teachers goes on, there will be included in that instruction some genuine experience of thinking about higher educational aims and correlative procedures as a whole, rather than merely intensive study of discrete bodies of knowledge. If wise objectives are to be newly shaped and instructional processes are to be appropriately revamped, this depends in the last analysis on a point of view and an intellectual equipment on the part of a new generation of teachers, which will help them to espouse flexible educational experiments more eagerly than has usually been true in the past.

The role of objectives is, in short, vital. But equally important is the role of those leaders who struggle to translate them into actuality by virtue of a democratic process of shared deliberation. And that cooperative thinking has to be designed to earn consent for improved aims and methods calculated to make improved objectives work.

Education is to inspire the love of truth as the supreme good, and to clarify the vision of the intellect to discern it. We want a generation of men above deciding great and eternal principles upon narrow and selfish grounds. Our advanced state of civilization has evolved many complicated questions respecting social duties. We want a generation of men capable of taking up those complex questions, and of turning all sides of them towards the sun, and of examining them by the cold light of reason, and not under the false colors which sophistry may throw upon them.—HORACE MANN in Lecture on Education.

A Philosophy of Comedy

The Essence of the Comic Spirit in Literature and Life

RICHARD L. LOUGHIN

To FIND out what makes comedy tick—rather than what makes it tickle—is the purpose of this paper. Cause, not effect, is the chief concern. Prior studies have, for the most part, called attention to laughter (the psychological and physiological response to

normal comic stimuli); this inquiry goes beyond (and before) the reaction to discover the philosophical first principle of comedy—the comic spirit.

Except at the high noon of reason, scholarly reputations throw slanting shadows over some areas of investigation. To let the inquisitive light of logic into these adumbrated regions, the truth-seeker must be as prompt and as democratic as Death. Consequently, in this paper, great names will receive no tender consideration¹ nor will traditional terms² be permitted to block the proceedings. Furthermore, the investigator does not intend to expend his energy formulating hide-and-seek definitions of the multiple, accidental manifestations of the comic spirit in pun, humor, parody, wit, and jest,³ nor in substituting masses of illustrative material⁴ for reasoning. The project is to surprise the comic spirit, the basic element of comedy.⁵

In clearing the ground, some favorite theories of comedy must be chopped down or pruned. To begin, Plato, George Meredith, and William Makepeace Thackeray contend that the comic spirit must have tears in her eyes. In *Philebus*, Plato says, "We laugh at the misfortunes of our friends, and our feeling is mixed pleasure and pain."⁶ In like manner, George Meredith claims, "The stroke of the great humor-

¹ This is in keeping with Aquinas's dictum that the weakest of all arguments is the appeal to human authority.

² "Traditional terms often cramp the minds of investigators and may form a hindrance to fertile developments." Otto Jespersen, *The Philosophy of Grammar*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1924, p. 341.

³ The physicist A. S. Eddington recognized the futility of attempting crisp statements on such subjects as humor. *The Nature of the Physical World*, pp. 258-259 as quoted by T. C. Pollock, *The Nature of Literature*, pp. 86-87. More recently, the psychologist Knight Dunlap wrote, "Perhaps if I slash boldly through the maze of terminology which has grown up about this subject, and say that by the comic I mean all those situations which are funny, I shall come near to the indication of my topic. . ." Knight Dunlap, *Old and New Viewpoints in Psychology*, p. 113. Finally, Louis Untermeyer declared, "Humor, following St. Paul's example, has become all things to all men. It is so all-embracing that it escapes categories and defies definition." *The Merry-Go-Round of Humor*, *New York Times Magazine*, December 1, 1946, p. 16.

⁴ In advancing his play—theory of humor, in the *Enjoyment of Laughter*, Max Eastman offers a plethora of illustrations.

⁵ Generally speaking, J. C. Gregory in *The Nature of Laughter*, focuses attention upon the mechanics of response to the comic stimulus. I am not concerned with the personal effect (laughter) but with the causative principle (the comic spirit *per se*).

⁶ As quoted by J. Y. T. Grieg, *The Psychology of Laughter and Comedy*, p. 225.

ist is world wide, with lights of Tragedy in his laughter."⁷ On the same band wagon is William Makepeace Thackeray, who writes, "Humor! Humor is the mistress of tears; she knows the way to the *fons lachrymarum*, strikes in dry and rugged places with her enchanting wand, and bids the fountains gush and sparkle."⁸

Have not these three giants confused the psychological law of contrast with the essence of comedy? True, comic writers often use a pathetic incident or character as a backdrop for their comedies⁹—just as knowing ladies set off their pearls against black velvet—but comedy and tragedy are separate,

⁷ George Meredith, *An Essay on Comedy*, p. 78.

⁸ William Makepeace Thackeray, *The English Humorists*, p. 279.

⁹ In like manner, tragedians often employ comic scenes or characters for psychological purposes. (For example, the grave digger's scene in *Hamlet*.)

"I shall not get myself entangled in the toils of any dualistic theory in order to explain pain as an excess of pleasure, the pleasurable aspects of pain (in masochism, for example), and the oscillation between tears and laughter in hysteria. Nor am I concerned with the belief that the true tragedian is also a comedian, as Socrates maintained in this final section of the Symposium: "Aristodemus was only half awake, and he did not hear the beginning of the discourse; the chief thing which he remembered was Socrates compelling the other two to acknowledge that the genius of comedy was the same with that of tragedy, and that the true artist in tragedy was an artist in comedy also. To this they were constrained to assent, being drowsy, and not quite following the argument. And first of all Aristophanes dropped off, then, when the day was already dawning Agathon. Socrates, having laid them to sleep, rose to depart; Aristodemus as his manner was, following him." *Plato*. New York: Walter J. Black, 1942, pp. 215-216.

¹⁰ Sigmund Freud, *Wit and Its Relation to the Unconscious*.

though related, literary and psychological entities.¹⁰

Next, Freud's theory of comedy¹¹ is presented in terms of the conservation of "psychic energy." Freud goes on to differentiate humor, the comic, and wit in this fashion. Humor is the economy of emotions; the comic, the economy of thought, and wit, the economy of inhibitions. More specifically, Freud's theory of humor is this. Most of the "psychic energy" that was summoned for expenditure on some emotion, such as pity, is salvaged when the sympathizer discovers that the object of his reaction is either unworthy of pity or too stoic to accept it. (For example, when Saint Thomas Moore, placing his head on the block, cautioned the headsman to be careful not to crop his beard because it had not committed treason.) The "psychic energy" that would ordinarily be used in sympathy is inapplicable. The subject, finding himself with a surplus of "psychic energy" on hand, laughs the overflow off. However, since only a certain limited amount of energy is consumed in the laugh, the rest is conserved. This economy of energy is thus the unconscious source of pleasure in a humorous situation.

Similarly, a false face that makes one laugh is explained by Freud, as follows: The strange deformity of the features first bewilders. The spectator calls forth a certain amount of "psychic energy" to solve the problem. Then, noticing that it is only an artificial distortion of a physiognomy, he laughs.

Wit, Freud maintains, gives pleasure

in that it suddenly releases the surplus "psychic energy" demanded by inhibitions, which—for the most part—are conventions considered necessary to the welfare of society. Traveling salesmen jokes or risqué stories constitute wit for Sigmund Freud. (Of course, Freud realized that his theory was somewhat related to that of Herbert Spencer¹³ and of Alexander Bain, whom he quotes.¹⁴)

By a *reductio ad absurdum*, Freud's theory can be revealed as inadequate. If the conservation of energy is that which gives pleasure, then, the most passive human being is the one who enjoys himself most because he expends least "psychic energy." Who will defend this absurdity? Furthermore, are not Freud's bathetic-conservation theory and Kant's¹⁵ (like Bergson's—presently to be examined) concerned over much with laughter and not enough with the *comic spirit* that initiates mirth?

For Bergson, "The comic is that side of a person which reveals his likeness

¹³ "Laughter, naturally results only when consciousness is unawares transferred from great things to small—only when there is what we call descending incongruity." Herbert Spencer, *The Psychology of Laughter*. Reprinted in Sigmund Freud's *Wit and Its Relation to the Unconscious*.

¹⁴ Alexander Bain's theory is, "laughter is a relief from restraint." *Loc. cit.*, p. 226.

"Laughter is the result of an expectation which, of a sudden, ends in nothing." Quoted by Henri Bergson, *Laughter*, p. 85.

¹⁵ *Loc. cit.*, pp. 87-88.

"Laughter is, above all, a corrective. Being intended to humiliate, it must make a painful impression on the person against whom it is directed. By laughter, society avenges itself for the liberties taken with it. It would fail in its object if it bore the stamp of sympathy or kindness." *Loc. cit.*, p. 197.

¹⁶ Bergson, *op. cit.*, p. 181.

¹⁷ *Loc. cit.*, p. 186.

to a thing, that aspect of human events which, through its peculiar inelasticity, conveys the impression of pure mechanism, of automatism, of movement without life. Consequently it expresses an individual or collective imperfection which calls for an immediate corrective. This corrective is laughter, a social gesture that singles out and represses a special kind of absent-mindedness in men and events."¹⁶

That the mechanical is an aspect of the comical and that laughter is used, often cruelly, as a social corrective, few will deny. However, Bergson commits a sin of omission when he considers laughter chiefly as a heartless lash.¹⁷ Philosophically, it is more nearly a love tap.

Although Bergson, following Théophile Gautier's lead,¹⁸ understands that the comic is, in its extreme form, "the logic of the absurd," and even proclaims, "*Comic absurdity is of the same nature as that of dreams*";¹⁹ he fails to advance by the next forward step, which James Feibleman has taken in his digest, *In Praise of Comedy*.

Feibleman says:

Comedy, then, consists in the indirect affirmation of the ideal logical order by means of the derogation of the limited orders of actuality. There are of course many and diverse applications of this principle. It may for example be achieved (1) by means of direct ridicule of the categories of actuality (such as are found in current customs and institutions), or it may be achieved (2) by confusing the categories of actuality as an indication of their ultimate unimportance, and as a warning against taking them too seriously. . . .

The unexpected indication of the absence of perfection (the *ought*) constitutes the comic situation.¹⁹

By recognizing the comic artist as an objective logician with a social mission and an ontological purpose (whether consciously or unconsciously), Feibleman has noted the intellectual and social virtues of comedy, as Emerson did before him.²⁰ Just a few steps more, and the comic spirit would have been discovered—undraped. Dr. Samuel Johnson and Gilbert Keith Chesterton left hints of her habits.

In Boswell's biography of Johnson, one reads: "Dr. Goldsmith's new play, *She Stoops to Conquer*, being mentioned, Johnson: 'I know of no comedy for many years that has so much exhilarated an audience, that has answered so much the great end of comedy making an audience merry.'"²¹ Although not specifically mentioned, every lover of Goldsmith's play will (I presume) think of the second act. Remember the scene? Marlow and Hastings, two young Londoners, had set out to visit Mr. Hardcastle, an old friend of Sir Charles

¹⁹ James Feibleman, *In Praise of Comedy*, pp. 178-180.

²⁰ "Comedy and tragedy emerge from the same ontological problem: the resolution of the logical to the historical order." *Loc. cit.*, p. 203. Earlier, Emerson had written: "If the essence of the comic be the contrast between the ideal and the false performance, there is good reason why we should be affected by the exposure. We have no deeper interest than our integrity, and that we should be made aware, by joke and by stroke, of any lie we entertain." R. W. Emerson, *Letters and Social Aims: The Comic* as quoted by J. C. Gregory, *The Nature of Laughter*, p. 227.

²¹ James Boswell, *Life of Johnson*. London: Oxford Press, 1904, I, p. 498. (The italics are mine.)

Marlow. Losing their way, when but a short distance from their destination, they make inquiry at The Pigeons Inn. An habitué of this place, Tony Lumpkin, stepson of Mr. Hardcastle and a practical joker, informs them that Mr. Hardcastle's mansion is many miles away. He tells them, also, that the Three Pigeons is crowded but advances the intelligence that about a mile up the road is another, excellent hotel (actually Hardcastle's house) run by a voluble man who attempts being a gentleman. They arrive at Hardcastle's "castle" and, believing it to be an inn, order drinks, take off their boots in the parlor, and demand that the bill of fare for the dinner be presented. And here they are:

Marlow (perusing menu): What's here? For the first course; for the second course; for dessert. The devil, sir, do you think we have brought down the whole Joiner's Company, or the Corporation of Bedford to eat up such a supper? Two or three little things, clean and comfortable, will do.

Hastings: But let's hear it.

Marlow (reading): For the first course at the top, a pig, and prune sauce.

Hastings: Damn your pig, I say!

Marlow: And damn your prune sauce, say I.

Hardcastle: And yet, gentlemen, to men that are hungry, pig, with prune sauce, is very good eating.

Marlow: At the bottom, a calf's tongue and brains.

Hastings: Let your brains be knocked out, my good sir, I don't like them.

Marlow: Or you may clap them on a plate by themselves, I do.

Hardcastle (aside/to them): Their impudence confounds me. Gentlemen, you

are my guests, make what alterations you please. Is there anything else you wish to retrench or alter, gentlemen?"²³

As Dr. Johnson well knew—even though Goldsmith possibly did not²³—the ultimate purpose of the above quoted scene (aside from the temporary campaign against "sentimental comedy") is to make people merry. This is a noble purpose. Happiness is the goal of humanity: it is the indestructible hope. The artist who consecrates his talents to giving mankind moments of joy is an unanointed priest. Not only does the Lord love a cheerful giver but also a giver of cheerfulness! It is not only the logical but also the spiritual side of the comic artist which is operative in creating true comedy. Willing, if needful, to wash the feet of his fellowmen and even

²³ Oliver Goldsmith, *The Poems and Plays of Oliver Goldsmith*, New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1919, pp. 237-238.

²⁴ Oliver Goldsmith evidently accepted Aristotle's view: "Comedy is defined by Aristotle to be a picture of the frailties of the lower part of mankind, to distinguish it from tragedy, which is an exhibition of the misfortunes of the great...." Oliver Goldsmith, *An Essay On The Theatre or A Comparison Between Laughing and Sentimental Comedy*, *Westminster Magazine* (January, 1773). Reprinted in the appendix to *The Poems and Plays of Oliver Goldsmith*, pp. 315-316.

²⁵ G. K. Chesterton, *Humor*, *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 14th Edition, Volume 11, p. 835.

²⁶ "Elsewhere Aristophanes has made it plain that for him the comedian is a man of principles who has no respect for the opportunist willing to compromise with actuality in order to gain unlofty ends." James Feibleman, *In Praise of Comedy*, p. 29.

²⁷ Robert Browning, *The Poems and Plays of Robert Browning*. New York: The Modern Library, 1934, p. 833.

²⁸ Feibleman, *op. cit.*, p. 197. (On page 199, he makes the following comparison: "Comedy is an intellectual affair and deals chiefly with logic. Tragedy is an emotional affair, and deals chiefly with value.")

immolate himself for the transitory happiness and eventual improvement of his fellowman, the comedian, in literature and in life, plays the fool and gladly makes himself the butt of the joke.

Chesterton recognized the virtue of humility in comedy, and saw it in its greater context, as the following sentence attests: "Humor, like wit, is related, however indirectly, to truth and the eternal virtues; as it is the greatest incongruity of all to be serious about humor, so it is the worst sort of pomposity to be monotonously proud of humor, for it itself is the chief antidote to pride; and has been, ever since the time of the Book of Proverbs, the hammer of fools."²⁴

That the comedian (in his purest function) is a mystical logician—a humble priest of truth, whose happy mission has the moral or social purpose of *making mankind laugh itself into virtue*—has important political values. In Browning's poem, "Aristophanes' Apology," Aristophanes²⁵ avows:

I'll prove our institution, Comedy,
Coeval with the birth of freedom, matched
So nice with our Republic, that its growth
Measures each greatness, just as its decline
Would signalize the downfall of the pair.²⁶

Indeed, as Feibleman states, "The true comedian is one who is always cognizant of the logic of events. He reacts not only negatively away from tragedy but also positively toward the logical order of the ideal."²⁷

Thus, directly or obliquely and sometimes inadvertently, the comic artist helps to make life better—by revealing the disparity between the *is* and the

ought, and bearable—by reminding men of their right to happiness. More, he is a moralist who intuitively senses the reciprocal reaction between virtue and happiness. This reciprocity W. B. Yeats affirmed in these words:

"For the good are always the merry,
Save by an evil chance."

The Fiddler of Dooney.

Finally, the comic spirit, which prompts the comic artist, can be defined as the human spirit in those incandescent intervals of detached (because sublimely unified) moments of mystical vision when—discarding opaque vanity (pride, passion, and prejudice)—it sees the jealous relationship among happiness, virtue, truth, and beauty in the brotherhood of man under the fatherhood of God. Unselfishly, it calls fellow spirits to join it in rejecting the finite for the infinite—imperfection for perfection—and, with eternal cheerfulness, it chants *Sursum Corda*. Let, then, all hearts be hopeful: Pain, be humble; Wrong, be inverted; Pride, be contrite; Law, be impersonal; Power, be benign; Want,

* Laughter, unalloyed, is a prayer of thanksgiving for salvation from gloom. It lets God (and your fellowman) know that life is good and that the universal hope for happiness is normal. However, in its cruellest uses, laughter becomes merely a concatenation of vowels preceded by aspirates, confessing brutal perversions of joy. Such is the laughter of mockery, of triumph, of self-congratulation, of irony, and other forms of "devil worship."

be wanting; Despair, be banished; Charity, be resident; Wonder, be alert; Virtue, be wedded; Joy, spill over into laughter,* for the fun has just begun!

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Never have we witnessed a deeper concern among people generally for education and a wider recognition of its importance for our future destiny.—J. W. STUDEBAKER, Commissioner of Education, U. S. Office.

The Mischief in Robert Frost's Way of Teaching

(Excerpt from a forthcoming portrait,
A Swinger of Birches)

SIDNEY COX

AT LEAST twice and at least ten years apart Robert Frost told interviewers that he must be just an ordinary man. He may have teased Henry Wallace about his idealization of the common man. He may have angrily called a dean who had let a real teacher go a "commonordinarian." But he "would not be taken as ever having rebelled." He claimed no exemption from the common lot. He would be nothing less than an ordinary man, always "more than half" there, always, if possible, all there. Most of his difference consisted in having given up less than usual of the normal human sensibilities and desires, and in having composed a character with what he kept.

His mischief was never a mask. It is a native sparkle that he continually rekindles in his persistent seeking for "the center"; his steel strikes the necessary flint as he wilfully indulges his craving for "the highest reaches."

"Being alive is a lot of fun" to the last if something has not gone wrong. And being funny is not very peculiar in a funny world. There ought to be ways for more and more of us to keep up the systole and diastole, the expansion and contraction, the breathless swing from the crude subject matter of experience

to form. And so, no matter what the differences between himself and other people, he has wanted to keep regaining touch. He has wanted to win the affection of many of his fellows, and, holding fast to all that really matters, with no crowding and no infringement, to show them how to have ideas. Then he would pay them the compliment of withdrawing: "give him that terribly abandoned feeling, left to the horrors of his own thought and conscience."

He has not let out all the cats in his bag, but in the midst of his career he let out a cat whose leap and pounce disclosed a thread that runs through both his poetry and his teaching:

"The lack of ideas in young minds is shocking to me. That's my quarrel with everybody I know. I want you putting two and two together, and I don't care a hoorah for anything else. That's my interest. As long as I stay around the college that will be my reason for staying. I have run away you know. I ran away twice and I walked away a good many times. You see I haven't time to tell you all the devices that I use, the attitudes I strike, to convince people that I mean that.

" . . . the weakness, the strength, to be swept away, to be carried away, by something more than beer, and games, and so on. I want everybody to be carried away by

something. I'd rather it would be beer and games than nothing, I think. I like people who can't help thinking and talking about things, to the highest reaches. That of course is the great thing.

"You may say there's plenty of provision for that in school. But is there? Freedom to do more than you're asked to do. No you haven't either. Every minute's provided for. I would say to my class, 'I am entitled to nine hours of your time—three in class and two outside for each of those. All right, I present it to you. This is the time you can lose yourselves. You've got to do some losing of yourself to find yourself. 'I touch it and remit it,'" as Kipling says. I'll keep the institution off your back to that extent.

"Nothing may happen in nine weeks out of ten. All those hours may be wasted. I think in the years, though, something may happen. Let it stand for a kind of gravestone for what you didn't do."

Showing the young how to have ideas involves a kind of sabotaging of the institution. But those whom Robert Frost has first shown how and then abandoned see, with the mischief, the reverence, the good will, the passionate seriousness and the sympathy with the reluctant schoolboy that blend in his way of teaching.

His education is like his kind of funny world. It declines to make a shut-eye assumption that there is "any universal reason" in man's possession or about to be. It might surprise the over-logical to hear Robert Frost indignantly denouncing college teaching which "frisks Freshmen of their principles." At Bread Loaf in 1925 he declared that courses which did that were indefensible. A boy with all

his beliefs drawn out of him was in no condition to learn or even to live. He should have some beliefs as unquestionable as the axioms of geometry. No postulates deliberately adopted could ever have the necessary validity.

He was sure, a few years later, that one who suddenly announced to the world what intellectual position he had taken was going about his thinking the wrong way. Not postulates. We had to have unarguable, undemonstrable, unmistakable axioms—just three or four. And if we didn't abuse our minds we should surely have them. One such is that genuineness is better than pretense. Another is that meanness is intolerable in oneself. And another is that death is better than being untrustworthy.

If some college Freshman confuses a false assumption with an axiom he does not need to have it amputated. Get him to taking responsibility and having ideas. If the principle he has taken in with his mother's milk is illusory or oversimple he will discover its inadequacy by having it give way beneath him when he acts. Let the student keep his principles until he has wisdom to replace some of them. Don't bring on the questioning of axioms. And warn him not to expect any complete explanations. Robert Frost's kind of education accepts, with Job, the realization that though reason "is what we're most concerned with," in "the trial by existence" it is

. . . of the essence of the trial
You shouldn't understand it at the time.
It had to seem unmeaning to have meaning.¹

Something in school must save the students from thinking they can be given

¹ From *A Masque of Reason* by Robert Frost. Reproduced by permission of Henry Holt and Co., Inc. Copyright, 1945 by Robert Frost.

the answer. They must learn that there is no way to get out of suffering. They must be rescued from those who would save them from realizing what Robert Frost was once more realizing when he wrote:

Before the leaves can mount again
To fill the trees with another shade,
They must go down past things coming up,
They must go down into the dark decayed.
They *must* be pierced by flowers and put
Beneath the feet of dancing flowers.³

Not as a fact only must "going down into the dark decayed" be known; it must be emotionally known; it must be seen as tragic beauty.

Something in school days should save us from being "too ready to believe the most," from the cowardly modesty of the "literate farmer,"

No need for us to rack our common heads
About it, though. We haven't got the
mind.⁴

Something in school should save us from the fatal credulity of progress prophets: You take the ugliness all so much dread Called getting out the wrong side of bed.

A bed's got no right side to get out of.
We can't be trusted to the sleep we take,
And simply must evolve to stay awake.
He thinks that chairs and tables will endure,
But beds—in less than fifty years he's sure
There will be no such piece of furniture.⁵

Something must save students from sup-

³ From *Collected Poems* of Robert Frost. Copyright, 1930, 1939 by Henry Holt and Co., Inc. Copyright, 1936, by Robert Frost.

⁴ From *A Witness Tree* by Robert Frost. Reproduced by permission of Henry Holt and Company, Inc., Copyright, 1942, by Robert Frost.

⁵ From *Collected Poems*. See footnote 2.

posing that the way of intelligence is eliminating opposition and waste. Something must be present in education to remind them that as lying down goes with love, so waste goes with growth, and that opposition goes with night and day. They must have, in school, excitements that will immunize them from getting

. . . excited
With hopes of getting mankind unbenighted.⁶

One time when Robert Frost was telling something of how he taught, he said, "Sleep is probably a symbol of the interruption, the disconnection that I want in life. Your whole life can be so logical that it seems to me like a ball of hairs in the stomach of an angora cat. It should be broken up and interrupted, and then brought together by likeness, free likeness."

For the needful reflection the student must have "time out"; he must have his battles interspersed with moments "to reflect." Then he will not be seduced by systems. He will come to trust casual learning. He will not be afraid of being for a while a spectator, of more than games. He will not brush aside the sympathy he feels with someone who is disappointed in a thing that he has "always wanted," nor forget that such a disappointment

. . . makes it seem
Even worse still, and so on, down, down,
down.⁷

But ambiguities will not discourage such a student. With Robert Frost for teacher, he will be "shown how the

limited can make snug in the limitless." And his "keeping by himself" will be the opposite of Asa's, in Robert Frost's prose play, *The Way Out*, "all I've done to keep out of things"; he will understand that "If you won't go to life, why life will come to you," and he will act.

Some who have been in Robert Frost's classes must have understood without surprise what he wrote in his letter to the *Amherst Student* on his sixtieth birthday:

"... you will often hear it said that the age of the world we live in is particularly bad. I am impatient of such talk. . . . It is immodest of a man to think of himself as going down before the worst forces ever mobilized by God.

• • • • •
"Fortunately we don't need to know how bad the age is. There is something we can always be doing without reference to how good or bad the age is. There is at least so much good in the world that it admits of form and the making of form. And not only admits of it but calls for it.

"We people are thrust forward out of the suggestions of form in the rolling clouds of nature. In us nature reaches its height of form and through us exceeds itself. When in doubt, there is always form for us to go with. Anyone who has achieved the least form, to be sure of it, is lost to the larger excruciations.

"I think it must stroke faith the right way. The artist or the poet might be expected to be the most aware of such assurances, but it is really everybody's sanity to feel it and live by it.

"The background is hugeness and confusion, shading away from where we stand into black and utter chaos.

"Unless we are novelists or economists we don't worry about this confusion. It is partly because we are afraid it might prove

too much for us and our blend of Democratic-Republican-Socialist-Communist-Anarchist party that we try to reduce this confusion.

"But it is more because we like it. We were born to it, born used to it, and have practical reasons for wanting it here. To me, any little form I assert upon it is velvet, as the saying is, and to be considered for how much more it is than nothing. If I were a platonist I should have to consider it, I suppose, for how much less it is than everything."

Robert Frost's "considerate neglect" of students he has spent hours with, way into the morning, must have helped a few of them to similar humorous, imaginative sanity. If so they are freed by having the spirit of adventure freed in them. Those who understand are, like him, glad that conditions include confusion. Conditions including confusion call for performance.

In 1933 on the way to Rutland after receiving the doctorate of letters at the first college he had "run away from," Robert Frost remarked, "The nearest thing in college to the arts is not the classroom. It is the gymnasium and the athletic field."

Your heart is fully in it and that is why you are good. You excel at vaulting, tumbling, racing, tennis or any kind of ball game because you have the art to put all you've got and all you are into that performance. You're completely alert. You're hotly competitive and yet a good sport. You're having fun, skillfully taking risks, increasing the hazards as your proficiency increases. (Putting up the bar in the high jump, for instance.) You deliberately limit yourself

by traditional, artificial rules. What you try for is effective and appropriate form, form that avails most fully of your own particular resources. And success is measured by surpassing performance. Including the surpassing of your former self.

But my exegesis begins to "sound like a professor," and Robert Frost never sounded like a professor. He didn't say all that. Concretely and with suggestive inflection—imagining, as he watched me, how I was filling in the parallel—he said just enough of it so that I could have in my mind almost what was taking shape in his. A professor is usually afraid to play with hints and touches; but sometimes—not knowing how to guess when he is and when he isn't having good collaboration—he blindly and impetuously throws a hint without observing how it is taken or whether it misses altogether.

Unimaginative thoroughness and lack of insight into the imagination of others make school a place to grin and bear. Good writers are more akin to the fishing, hunting, airplane-flying truants than to most on the honor roll. But the professor-dominated little literary magazines have the school defect. That is why they are pompous, precious and punitive. The productions of star pupils do not relieve the dullness; for they, too, alas, are already wizened and not wise.

Robert Frost has tried to resist the dullness and the coerciveness. He told some girls at a finishing school recently that he could tell them what they had learned, if they were seniors. Once, he said, parents used to say to their children, home from school, "Well, what

did you learn today?" Naturally the children got all self-conscious and could not tell. But he could tell. He could tell them what they had learned in their four years. They had learned to read.

And if they hadn't, if they and their school had failed, he said, they could go to college and be given a second chance. That was what colleges were for, to provide a second chance to learn to read. If you have already learned you do not need to go. College might be bad for you. You might learn to study what was meant only to be read. And, worse yet, after a long time of that—four years of college—you might leave college to write something meant to be studied. Then you would be contributing to the downfall, decay and sterility of culture.

In 1945 he talked of how, actually, we learn to read, how we keep drudgery and books apart. In reading a poem, he said, part of the fun is in knowing, already, where everything in it comes from; but that must be made possible by earlier reading—all of it that is not made possible by having lived. It is not fair to the reader to interfere with his pleasure in using what he knows by the distraction of footnotes.

Poetry is, he said, the purest kind of reading. And what you do, in becoming able to read more and more rich and inclusive poetry, is not advancing; it is spreading; it is circulating. You circulate through literature. You spread from a limited range of reference to a wider and wider range. You start, say, with a jingle from Mother Goose. It helps you, later, to read poem number two. Poem number two helps you to read

poem number three. Poem number three helps you to read poem number four. And poem number four helps you to read poem number five. Then number five helps you to read number two. You read this time with much fuller identification and delight. And so you go, spreading, keeping up a circulation.

But it must be, must be always pleasure. "What New Year's resolution did you discover worth taking?" he wrote from Amherst in January 1920. "I resolved not to let anyone put a book to any use it wasn't intended for by its author—if I could help it. Some will ask how they are going to kill three hours a week and not put an occasional book to an occasional use it wasn't intended for by its author. Embarrassedly twiddling thumbs if necessary. Or, if that suggests too much a country courting, let them read aloud a good deal and teach others to read aloud. Shakespeare says good orators, when they are out, spit. *There* is something that will suggest itself when other things fail.

"Go at it now for genuineness. A minimum of class work and all kinds of work for mere exercise. Remember that some of us have got by without ever having written a thing for exercise. Dorothy Canfield was telling me the other day that she had. She's a Doc of Phil of Columbia too. Make it real and you'll beat the Dutch."

What he meant by making it real was paradoxically particularized further in what he said to a little theater-full of high school teachers of English at Bread Loaf in the summer of 1924: An English teacher has three prime duties. He would state them, he said, in the order

of their importance. The English teacher's first duty is to himself—then with a quizzical smile—herself. Her first duty is to herself. Her second duty is to the books. Her third duty is to her students.

The greater number in his audience had always supposed that "Education" courses applied to their own professional lives more than did anything in literature. What they patiently listened to at a teacher's institute joined on with what had bored them in the last professional journal. But here was a lovable and honest man—for most of them had that feeling clearly—here was a poet, who also taught, turning things upside down. The bright and shallow ones forced a cackle and dismissed his paradox as "humor." The serious ones, who had a trace of humor themselves, listened thoughtfully and, later, pondered.

Good teaching, they saw he meant, requires first of all good teachers: extraordinarily blithe and winsome persons; persons who can actually establish contact between the subject matter they teach and the human being they teach; highly animate and animating persons who can make connection between novel, essay, story, poem and the appetites and the needs, however dimly felt, of each human being in his class. To be such a person, he meant, you must not be fagged or cowed or flustered; to be such a person you might better throw away a bunch of themes. You must not come to class with a conscientious headache. To make literature and writing fun, it matters, first of all, that you have fun yourself—and at the time of class.

The serious teachers in that audience

saw that Robert Frost was saying that no teacher could wake a liking for the great in books if he did not care for it so warmly that he would cherish the greatness, preserve it from systematic analysis and systematic misuse or even the diminishing of a pintpot editor's commentary.

They saw that to be valuable to your student you were compelled to keep

yourself of value and to treat the books with the consideration that great minds command from good minds. And so at last they saw that Robert Frost was not too assured. He was, they felt, very reverent of the latent virtue in all whom he taught. For the sake of their not yet developed best, he would protect the best in literature with his whole self, at its best.

TEN-POINT GOAL TO STRENGTHEN TEACHING

A 10-point program to help strengthen teaching as a profession, thereby making it more attractive as a career for young men and women, was announced by the executive committee, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, at a biennial national conference at Estes Park, Colorado, early this fall.

The program urges: (1) A public relations program to help the public see that "the teachers of this country are the real defenders of the democratic way of life"; (2) high standards of recruitment and selection of prospective teachers; (3) increase in amount of preservice preparation of teachers in public schools to a minimum of 5 years; (4) major changes in curricula for teachers "demanded by the nature of current political, international, economic, social, and educational problems"; (5) adjustment of curricula to the increasing number of junior colleges so that graduates may elect to prepare for teaching without a loss of time; (6) wider and wiser use of laboratory facilities in preparation of teachers; (7) immediate steps to attract better prepared staff members for teacher education institutions; (8) revision of certification laws in many States to permit experimentation and changes in the curricula of institutions preparing teachers; (9) higher salaries for public school teachers, and (10) provision of courses in colleges and universities which prepare teachers that will provide the ability "to discover real life problems in the communities where they teach and to develop curriculum material related to those problems which will aid in their solution and thereby improve the standards of living in those communities."

Janus

GLADYS VONDY ROBERTSON



Forward, forward, my feet are moving fast . . .
Forward, forward, a force is pushing me
ahead so that I am running from the past
to some far thing my mind can never see.
I go too hurriedly. . . . The clods and hills
are moles and all the while my head turns back
watching the past spread out as action spills
the works of man upon a ribbon track.
Forward, forward, I run to the unknown
that leads to some bright star, but double-headed
I look behind, bound by blood and bone
to physicals with which my flesh has bedded.
Tied to a weary past with a golden suture
I stumble headlong to an atomic future.

The Democratic Approach to Education

C. A. ALINGTON

THERE are two warnings which I wish to give to any who may read this paper—that I shall approach the subject from the point of view of the English public school (because these are the only schools of which I have first-hand knowledge) and that I shall speak of them at their best (because what is important is the nature of the ideal at which they aim, not the relative success or failure of attempts to reach it).*

I should maintain that the essence of the public school system is its respect for personality, and that must be the basis for all truly democratic education; it may seem a paradox to make such a claim for schools which have hitherto catered for a privileged class, but there is little or nothing in the public school system which cannot be, and indeed is not being, successfully reproduced in schools which cater for a different social class.

The personality of the master is as vital as the personality of the boy, and the relative freedom which a public schoolmaster in England enjoys is, I know, regarded with wondering envy by his colleagues in other countries. He may develop methods of his own and, if they are successful, no sane headmaster

will seek to curtail this liberty to experiment. He can, having boys in his charge outside school hours, seek to interest them in a variety of subjects outside the school curriculum; though he is of course limited by outside examinations, he will often think (and not without reason) that his best educational work is done in other ways. He regards (and I need hardly repeat that I am speaking of the ideal) his main function as being to develop the personality of the boys in his charge in every possible way—spiritually, intellectually and physically; and in a boarding school his opportunities are unlimited. That boarding schools do not suit all boys is obvious, but most schoolmasters would agree that the percentage for whom they are definitely a failure is surprisingly small.

But it is actually with the boys that we are most concerned. It is obvious that, entirely apart from the subjects, which he learns in school, he will be given the opportunity of developing his character in contact with his fellow. Thus, his main object in school is not to pass some particular examination, or (at least in the early stages) to qualify for some particular profession; his first task, and his sure road to happiness, is to make himself a welcome and a useful member of the community. He learns to obey, but with the reasonable prospect that he will in time be in a position to command. He can make, without fatal

* Note: The public schools of England, apart from a handful of long established day schools in the largest cities, are boarding schools, where for some 40 weeks of the year the pupils live, either in "houses" or in the main school building itself. In practice the term nearly always means boarding schools.

results, mistakes which in later life might be disastrous. He can learn to forget himself, in co-operation with others, and that is a lesson which lies at the root of Christian morality as well as of all social advance. If he has any capacities of leadership he will gradually have opportunities of showing them; as the great Lord Halifax said, "the young gentleman" who is to be a good naval officer will be all the better for having served as a "tarpaulin."

If he has tastes of his own, he will, unless he is very unfortunate, find companions to share and indeed to encourage them; for in most large schools the intellectual atmosphere, is singularly tolerant. I always remember with pleasure one evening at Eton in which I was asked to attend meetings of the Plain Song Society, the Fine Art Society and the French Debating Society. None of the members of any one of these societies took the faintest interest in the proceedings of the others—was, perhaps, unaware of their existence; but it would never have occurred to any of them that the other societies had not a perfect right to exist. This example may be extreme (for Eton is a very large school) but the principle is the same throughout, and the enormous increase in the range of school societies is one of the most marked and encouraging features of education in the last half-century.

No doubt the large freedom which they enjoy is sometimes abused; but so is God's gift of freedom to the human race, and there is no reason to suppose that the Almighty repents His decision. I do not think that in the present day

boys often abuse this authority over one another: the danger exists, but the danger is far less than it was, for we live in a gentler age. It is far from uncommon to find cases where juniors have learned invaluable lessons from senior boys who really cared for the good of the house or the school.

It is by idleness that many boys misuse this freedom. In many cases the exaggerated importance which they attach to athletics is merely reflecting the parental attitude and the father who turns first to the sporting news in the paper has no real cause for surprise if his son knows the batting average better than the multiplication table. In so far as this is a national fault, it is obviously an educational danger, but it is not in the schools that those mistaken values are primarily taught.

I have spoken separately of boy and master; it is time to say a word of the relationship between the two. In the last half-century there has been an amazing change; fifty years ago a real friendship between boy and master, though it undoubtedly existed, was extremely rare and suggested rare qualities on one side or the other. Today, a boy is exceptionally unfortunate or exceptionally ill-conditioned if he does not leave his school with real feelings of friendship for some at least of those who have taught him. He has learned to grow up in a free community, to feel the constraint of a real loyalty to a society of which he has been a full member; and because he has been free he has been happy. There are few things more striking in English life to overseas visitors

than the affection which English boys feel for their schools. They return to them with pleasure, they support them with amazing generosity and they are anxious that if possible their sons should follow in their steps; in a word, they have been happy in their school life. And that is, so far as I know, a result which has been achieved only in Britain and in those schools in the United States which avowedly owed their origin to British inspiration.

To some this will seem a foolish claim to make, even if it be a true one. They will rightly say that education should not make happiness its object; to that the answer is clear—the main object of a public school education is, in the words of the old prayer, to fit men for the service of God in church and state. We

believe that, in a democratic state, this is best done, not by equipping the boy with any one type of knowledge or adapting him to follow any particular profession, but in teaching him, when young, to live with others as an equal member of a free community, to appreciate and sympathize with those of different qualities and different tastes, and to forget, as far as may be, his selfish interests in loyalty to a larger society.

If, as is undeniably the case, those results are often not achieved, the fault lies not in the ideal itself but with those fallible human beings who try to carry it out in practice. It remains the true ideal, for it is based on that respect for the individual which is the root of all democracy worthy of the name.

I said to a man who stood at the gate of the year, "Give me a light that I may tread safely into the unknown," and he replied, "Go out into the darkness and put your hand into the hand of God. That shall be to you better than a light and safer than a known way!"—His MAJESTY KING GEORGE VI

Let Dreamers Dream

ALMA C. MAHAN



Let dreamers dream. The earth is made
Of values which will never fade;
For faith and hope can opalesce
Each darkened fear with loveliness.
The dreamer marches unafraid.

Upon the scales as years are weighed
Mix dreams to balance life's charade,
For only weaklings acquiesce.
Let dreamers dream.

The diamonds sprinkle every blade
Of summer grass—an accolade
For duty's gift. Though dreads obsess
The body, dauntless dreams may bless
Sad minds with beauty's serenade.
Let dreamers dream.

Student Criticisms

STANLEY SKIFF

FOUR child psychology classes at the University of Kentucky were used in this project, two during the fall quarter and two during the winter quarter of the academic year 1947-48. On the average the classes contained about fifty students representing the agriculture, home economics, liberal arts, engineering, education, and physical education departments. At the end of each quarter the students were invited to write a criticism of the class. The only instructions given were:

"In order that I may improve this class next quarter please write a criticism of this class. Either disguise your handwriting or use a typewriter. Do not put your name on the paper. Papers may be placed under my door, in my mail box, or mailed to me. You are at liberty to use any type of language you care to and say anything you desire to about this course. It is requested that you do not criticize other members of the faculty, or the administration. Papers will be destroyed after I have read them."

Out of 224 students in the four classes, 203 wrote criticisms. These were analyzed for major direction of criticism. After some preliminary work six major categories were decided upon. No attempt was made to force papers into one of these classifications so the miscellaneous group is large. Two papers that were handed to the instructor personally

were not used. Forty-one students expressed appreciation of the opportunity to express grievances and make suggestions.

CRITICISMS

No. of students	Category
26	rationalized
48	attacked the subject matter (or psychology in general)
16	criticized class conduction
18	criticized physical facilities
18	remarked on other class members
29	aggression directed at instructor
67	fitted none of these

Examples of each classification are given below:

Rationalization: "I could have done better if the class hadn't been held at 2:00."

Physical Facilities: "The room was much too noisy."

Class Conduction: "Lectures did not follow the text."

Class Members: "A few people talked all the time."

Personal: "Your hands look old and do not match your face."

Psychology: "There is nothing to the whole damn field of psychology."

It seems significant that so many students availed themselves of the privilege of criticism. It indicates that many students in this class felt some antagonism toward some phase of the course.

Possibly instructors should make some provision for relief of aggressive feelings of students.

I know nothing worse of a man than that he should not know.

—KING ALFRED

Washington, D.C.

RUTH CLOUSE GROVES



Hold out your hand and touch the marble
Warmed in spring by pink of cherry bloom
Follow the blossoms to the White House gate
Beyond the gate—the mansion's crystal room.

Away to archives of the nation's triumphs
Climbing the steep wide stairs slow steps will go
Waiting beside the high bronze statues
Or resting in the gold-leaf halls below.

Out and beyond the cherry basin's bloom
The old Potomac points a finger there
Beyond the iron gates—the one white tomb
And row on row of crosses standing bare.

Hold out your hand—point upward toward the dome,
Pink blossoms, avenues, and polished stone—
These all are ours . . . this city is our own!

Contributions of the National Education Association toward Building a Teaching Profession

T. D. MARTIN

A N ARTICLE, "To Make Teaching A Profession," published in the November, 1947 issue of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM suggests the unfortunate lack of information current regarding the program of service which the National Education Association has rendered and is rendering toward building a teaching profession.

In practically any group of teachers you will find three schools of thought in connection with the question, "Is Teaching a Profession?" On the one hand there will be those who honestly believe that teaching is already a fully developed profession, that historically it dates back to Christ and before, and that its standards are quite as high as medicine, law or the ministry.

At the other extreme are those chronic pessimists who insist that we do not have a teaching profession now and that we never will have one since all that we have is a "procession of teachers, not a profession." They emphasize the fact that for many women teaching is primarily a "way-station to marriage," that many of our teachers are merely a "mobile mob of maidens meditating matrimony" and that for many men it is frequently only "a vestibule to a career" or a "stepping-stone" to some more profitable vocation.

Between these two extremes there is a group who, like Dr. James E. Russell, former Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, believe that teaching is by tradition a trade but that we can make it a profession.

The purpose of the National Education Association as stated in its Charter is "To advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education throughout the United States." This generalized statement of purpose may, of course, be interpreted in many ways but the interpretation which I like best is "to build a teaching profession for the sake of the boys and girls of this country."

I admit quite frankly that progress toward the realization of this goal has been woefully slow but anyone familiar with the facts knows that progress has been made and that the National Education Association has been a potent factor in promoting this progress.

Take the matter of salaries. In 1870 the average annual salary of teachers in this country was \$189; in 1937-38 it was \$1,374 and in 1947-48 it was \$2,550. Of course, the National Education Association has not been wholly responsible for this increase. The general change in economic conditions has been a large factor. The work of local and state associa-

tions has been a potent influence, but the salary statistics published every two years since 1922 by the Research Division of the N.E.A., and the public relations program, particularly significant during recent years in the press, over the radio and on the screen, have helped materially.

The National Education Association has advocated the fundamental principles of effective tenure regulations and adequate retirement systems since 1887. Three-fourths of the states now provide, by law, for some type of professional security for part, if not all, of their teachers and state-wide retirement systems or pension plans have been established in all forty-eight states, Hawaii and the District of Columbia. Some of these are excellent, others are inadequate, all need improvement but conspicuous progress has been made and to this progress the National Education Association has contributed materially through its research services, the resolutions of its conventions and the investigations and reports of its committees.

For more than a quarter of a century the National Education Association has advocated cumulative sabbatical and sick leave, reasonable class size, equitable distribution of the teaching load and other similar matters which are essential for building a really attractive and effective profession. Thirteen states, by law, recognize sick leave. Most city systems provide it with some pay and at least one-third operate a cumulative sick leave plan. In large cities the medium class size in elementary schools is 32.9 pupils; in junior high schools it is 31.8 and in senior high schools it is 29.0

pupils. The National Education Association recommends that class enrollments should not exceed 25.

As long ago as 1920 the N.E.A. advocated as a minimum requirement for entering the teaching profession, four years of carefully planned college work following graduation from a standard high school. Fifteen states, Hawaii and the District of Columbia have now established this minimum by law. Forty-three states require at least four years of college preparation for their regular secondary school certificates and five states and the District of Columbia require five years. During recent years the N.E.A. Department of Higher Education and its Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards have been making an especially vigorous drive toward raising the standards for entrance to the teaching profession and the improvement of teaching technics. The Chautauqua Conference held in 1946, the Miami Conference of 1947 and the Bowling Green Conference of 1948 have made significant contributions in these fields as is suggested by the following recommendations made by the 400 state and national leaders who attended the Bowling Green conference:

1. Teacher-education programs should be accredited by a nation-wide agency under the auspices of the organized teaching profession. This agency should include broad representation from teacher-education institutions, the teaching profession, the general public, state councils on certification, and mature students preparing for the profession.
2. Colleges preparing teachers should be recognized as institutions preparing

trained personnel for the largest and most important profession; teacher education warrants no less respect and expenditure than medical, legal, or engineering education.

3. The salary schedule of teacher-education institutions should be comparable to that provided by institutions engaged in other types of professional education. A minimum salary of \$3,000 for instructors and up to \$10,000 for higher ranks is recommended.
4. The organization of the teacher-education institution staff for curriculum development should make it possible for its members to have a wide variety of experiences and responsibilities in the planning, development, and evaluation of the curriculum.
5. The way in which administrative practice impinges upon the character of instruction and its surrounding atmosphere should be the test of effectiveness of the teacher-education institution administration.
6. The arbitrary establishment of quotas for the number of teachers to be trained is opposed as being inconsistent with democratic practices. It is recommended that supply be controlled through improved selection techniques and through the establishment of higher standards.
7. Staff members in teacher-education institutions should be master teachers.
8. Student teacher organizations affiliated with the state association and the NEA should be established in every teacher-education institution.

The above findings will be emphasized in ten regional conferences which the Commission will sponsor throughout the nation this year. Similar conferences will also be arranged in numerous states and local communities.

In his article regarding the teaching

profession, published in Monroe's Cyclopedias of Education, Dr. Henry Suzzalo suggests that a code of ethics is an essential qualification for a profession. The National Education Association adopted a code of professional ethics for teachers in 1929. At the present time forty-six states, Hawaii and Puerto Rico have adopted codes and more than half of these are identical with or very similar to the N.E.A. code.

If further evidence is needed to prove that marked progress has been made toward developing a profession of teaching and that the National Education Association has been and is a potent influence in this connection, the following items published in the April, 1948 issue of the South Dakota Education are significant:

Teacher's Contract in 1832

Articles of agreement made and entered into this twenty-sixth day of July, 1832 between Thomas Moffett of the State of Indiana and County of Fountain of the first part, and we, the subscribers of the second part, witnesseth that the said Moffett doth agree to teach an English school for the term of three months, to wit: spelling, reading and writing from and after the seventh day of August, 1832. Said Moffett doth also bind himself to keep good order, and teach for the sum of one dollar and twenty-five cents per scholar, one dollar to be paid in any kind of country produce, to wit: corn, wheat, pork, etc., at the common market price. Twenty-five cents to be paid in cash at the expiration of said term. Said Moffett doth bind himself to receive for teaching, corn, at the time of gathering in the fall, and pork, at the usual time of killing winter meat. Witnesseth that the above mentioned subscribers do bind themselves to furnish a sufficient house to teach in, where it may be found most central in the

bounds of said school. And we, the above mentioned subscribers do bind ourselves to deliver said articles at Moffett's house or any one place in the bounds of said school. Fire wood shall be furnished if necessary. Said Moffett doth agree to commence with the number of twenty-five scholars. School will commence at eight o'clock in the morning and continue till six o'clock in the evening.

In marked contrast to the primitive conditions suggested by the above contract are the following recommendations taken from "the 1948 Annual Report of the Profession to the Public" by Willard E. Givens, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association.

1. The ranks of the teaching profession should be filled with talented persons comparable to those admitted to other professions.
2. One million new teachers must be selected and prepared to fill positions in the nation's schools during the next decade.
3. However, to attract large numbers indiscriminately, without careful screening of those who apply for admission to courses of teacher preparation, may seriously retard the achievement of full professional status.
4. Those high school students who rank among the highest one-fourth in scholarship, personality, and character should be encouraged to become teachers.
5. Only colleges and universities that place primary emphasis upon professional education should undertake to prepare teachers. Higher than average standards for college entrance should be demanded of those who enter teacher-preparation courses.
6. Teacher-preparation institutions and state-licensing authorities should, as soon as practicable, require the A.B. degree or its equivalent in addition to professional education courses for certification of teachers. It is scarcely possible to achieve these objectives in less than five years.
7. Institutions preparing teachers should include in their courses a study of the history, objectives, achievements, and action programs of the organized profession.
8. Some students who show great promise for teaching careers are unable to finance their preparation for the profession. Civic organizations, service clubs, parent-teacher associations, educational institutions, and others who make scholarships available to such students at both high school and college levels contribute to the development of teaching as a profession.
9. Elementary and high school teachers should be equally well prepared. The same salary schedule should be applied to the employment of teachers in the elementary school which applies to employment of teachers in high school.
10. The professionalization of teaching requires systematic programs of in-service development which are now lacking in many school systems. Such programs should be democratically planned with teachers as well as school officials participating. They must be generously financed, enlist the participation of all professional personnel of the school system, and be continuously pursued if they are to be effective.
11. Periodic leaves of absence with full or part pay should be granted to teachers for recognized programs of professional improvement.
12. Travel, graduate study, teacher institutes, and attendance at meetings of professional associations

- should be among the provisions for continuing year by year enrichment of teachers' services.
13. Retirement systems should protect teachers in their financially unproductive years and relieve from active duty teachers who have reached the age when vigor and effectiveness naturally begin to decline.
 14. Teachers should be protected by adequate tenure laws from unjust dismissal.
 15. The beginning salary of the four-year college graduate professionally prepared to teach should be at least \$2,400 a year. The salary of the teacher should be raised by annual increments to at least \$6,000 for those of outstanding ability and successful experience.
 16. Twenty-five pupils should be the maximum number enrolled in any class or grade taught by one teacher of academic subjects. No one teacher of such subjects in secondary or departmentalized schools should have more than a total of one hundred pupils in a day.
 17. The discussion of current issues should not be banned from the classroom merely on the ground that the issues are controversial.
 18. Teachers should in their personal lives demonstrate loyalty to the American form of government and

inculcate a similar spirit of loyalty in their students.

19. Teachers should not only be permitted but expected to play the full role of citizens in their community, state and nation.

Whenever I feel discouraged because the progress of teaching toward becoming a profession is so slow, I like to remember Lorado Taft's story about the little boy who was sitting on the floor with a pencil and paper drawing. When his mother inquired what he was doing he replied, "I'm drawing a picture." When she inquired what he was drawing a picture of he said, "I'm drawing a picture of God!" and when, somewhat shocked, she said, "Son, you can't draw a picture of God, nobody knows what God looks like," the youngster, with all the confidence of youth, replied, "They will, Mother, when I get through drawing this picture!"

We may not have a teaching profession fully developed and universally recognized at the present time but we hope to have one eventually and the National Education Association has been and is a potent force toward the realization of this ideal.

Motorists can't see pedestrians at night as easily as pedestrians can see autos. The National Safety Council says that fundamental fact should make walkers more careful. Don't spend a lifetime in crossing streets.—From Life Lines

Three Phases

T. R. McKENNA

THE TEACHER

She stands before her class, her mind alert,
All packed with lore, selected well to spur
Her attentive charges anew to zeal, and allure
The inventive ones from schemes to disconcert,
When opening door and formal greeting curt
Impress the fact that judgment day is sure.
Her judge has master's demeanor and aspect secure.
She feels she is thrust into scales, while pupils pert
Attempt to prove she lacks in cerebration.
Her eyes with pedagogic fervor brim,
Her smile is composed; her discourse has didactic vim.
She subconsciously prays for this man's approbation,
That swifter minutes may succeed the slow
Or office bell may summon him below.

THE PRINCIPAL REFLECTS

"Scholastic canon the head preceptor guides
In rating his faculty; he is well advised
By other master minds who have devised
Attested charts for pedagogic tides.
As arbiter, he listens, surveys, and then decides.
When a teacher with grace or wit or looks is supplied,
Though he grants that charm and talent can be allied,
Well schooled he is not swayed but by merit abides.
The instructor in knowledge and wisdom must be sound
To prepare the thirty or forty in classroom array
For the tests of life and the tests of school.
Designs for teaching in tenets and codes abound,
But integral worth eludes the formal assay;
Constructive thought without guile or caprice should rule."

A PUPIL RUMINATES

"The radio turns on sound; had I a clew,
I'd invent a device to reveal an assortment of thought
In print on scrolls of paper that could be caught
As they rolled from the dial, but now, I think I'll imbue
Some learning by ear, as Miss B. has assigned a review
For today. I need some facts for the test, and I ought
To look keen so she won't call on me for what she has taught.
Mr. A's in back to observe, so all fun I'll eschew.
There are tricks in every trade, including Miss B's.
I am sure she will call on those she thinks will know,
On Ann, the omniscient, and on Tom who aims to please.
Miss B. let me make the team, though my marks were low.
The class is quiet, all filled with decorous emotion,
For most are loyal and mindful of pending promotion."

School Lunches for Health and Culture

ARIADNE A. ASADIAN

Food Is Our Primary Necessity

THE President of the United States signed the National School Lunch Act on June 4, 1946. Following this the Department of Agriculture made its first allocation of \$46,000,000 to all the states in the Union for serving lunch during this school year to 9 million youngsters. It is unnecessary to say that food is essential for the preservation of life in all living beings especially in the growing child. No educational effort is crowned with full success unless the body of the learner is healthy to house an active sound mind. Only such an integrated mind and body could cause normal emotional and intellectual response to training and education.

Food, serving its goal, is paramount in life, an inescapable phenomenon, a common ground for the unity of mankind. Esau was not the only mortal who forfeited his birthright for "a mess of pottage." The marvelous story of the body-cell explains the why of the ever-present crave for nourishment. Hence, the first job of a democracy is to feed all its people properly; the second job is to teach the correct use of Freedom individually and socially.

Feeding the Family Requires Scientific Knowledge

The school cannot take the whole responsibility of the child's health. If it is true that one third of the nation's children are underfed, then we might

safely or sadly assume that another third may suffer from malnutrition or overfeeding. Hence, millions of homemakers require scientific knowledge regarding foods and their properties.

The process of feeding the family is passing from the instinctive traditional to the more purposeful and intelligent phase of human development. This subject is ably treated in a splendid volume by Dr. Sherman of Columbia University who states that ". . . the science of nutrition is evolving a fundamentally new viewpoint. This centers in the fact that what one takes in as food, even within the range of everyday normal conditions may influence the body's internal chemistry much more significantly than hitherto supposed."¹ Further on, emphasizing this salient point, he adds ". . . the more scientifically guided choice of food enhances both the quality and the duration of our lives."² These statements then have a direct bearing upon child feeding and the rate of their growth.

The late Mary Schwartz Rose, the ardent author of "Feeding the Family," conducted with co-workers carefully planned extensive studies for the purpose of acquiring standards for judging dietaries. For this project, they utilized their knowledge of children's requirements in relation to health and growth.

¹ *The Science of Nutrition*: Henry C. Sherman. Columbia University Press, New York, 1943, p. 4.
² *Ibid.*, p. 130.

The research and study included young people from 5 to 16 years. The pioneer champion of scientific feeding, said in her report: "In regard to the growth of the children, it was interesting to note that there was a higher proportion of children passing from one stature group to the next taller in case of the two institutions having the better dietaries."⁶

At this juncture, we may refer briefly to experiments in feeding carried on in some schools of Chicago. Actually, the better fed children have shown remarkable improvement in their studies passing from the category of borderline or dull normal into the bright normal group. In some London schools it has been proven that even an extra glass of milk in the diet of the youngsters contributed perceptibly to mental alertness and responsiveness. Undoubtedly scientific feeding is curing certain types of mentally and emotionally sick patients in more progressive institutions.

Thus biochemistry is constantly finding out new fascinating facts about the foods we eat and how they affect us. Authorities in this field are pointing out the difference between "adequate-passable" and "buoyant" health. The latter state can be enjoyed only through vital natural foods which contain nearly forty distinct nutrients.

Chemistry and the Sage of Monticello

Food chemistry is today a leading branch of industry. At the birth of this

nation, it was a mere metaphysical baby. But for manysided Thomas Jefferson, its magic influence upon health and happiness of man was not a mystery. In fact we read in one of his letters the account of a discussion he had with the celebrated French naturalist and stylist, Georges Louis de Buffon. The American statesman enthusiastically admitted the future gifts of chemistry to mankind. Buffon, however, although a mature man (1707-1788), did not attach great importance to chemistry; reluctantly, he relegated it to the culinary department of the home. He did not expect much good from it. Yet today, who would deny that the kitchen is the cradle of health and disease in the home and in eating places?

Indeed Jefferson who was ahead of his time, was not a gourmand. He simply had "new notions" about eating certain foods. At 78 he had not lost a tooth from age. In contrast, we may bring in here a modern condition prevalent among the school children of a great food producing state. According to a survey in ten California counties, ninety per cent of the children have dental diseases. Dr. Laurence S. McLaskey, dental consultant for the State Department of Public Health reports, "Here in California, the third largest state in population, the second in area and one of the wealthiest in the nation, but probably one of the worst off as far as the dental program for the children is concerned. . . ." He goes on to add that "There is very little being done in preventative, educational restorative or emergency treatment and what is worse there is a general feeling of indifference

⁶ *The Relation of Diet to Health and Growth of Children in Institutions*. Child Development Monograph, No. 2: Mary Schwartz Rose, Gray and Foster. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1930. p. 86.

on the part of some individuals who should know better."⁴

We sympathize with the Doctor's pleading and complaint. From a dietetic point of view this is a basic wrong that should be righted by better feeding. More calcium, vitamin A and C should be added to the daily diet. After all, dentistry can only treat the bad effects of poor eating. Also it must be admitted that California is literally swamped with migrant workers and their numerous children whose dental caries are unquestionably a major factor in the high percentage of dental diseases among California school children.

Rich and Poor Suffer from Malnutrition

People in general have the mistaken notion that problems of proper feeding relate only to the poor and ignorant. This is far from the truth. In spite of limitation of space, let us cite just one example: I remember well the contents of lunch bags and boxes in a two-room rural school in Long Island, New York. The teacher watched in dismay little Billy Folding gorge his two-inch thick sandwiches made of huge slices of white bread (it was not enriched!) stuck together with jelly, or paste of questionable value. No butter or milk to down the dry hastily swallowed lumps.

Billy was a pale and irritable boy of nine. He had deep dark circles under his large puffy brown eyes. His parents were busy making "big money" by raising Angora cats. They could not stop to learn how to feed their offspring.

⁴Los Angeles Times, October 25, 1947, p. 7.
⁵*Hygiene of the School Child*: Lewis M. Terman & John C. Almack, rev. ed. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1929, p. 96.

Discussing the importance of proper nutrition, Terman and Almack in their exhaustive study aver that "... Malnutrition is probably half as prevalent among the well-to-do as among the poor. . . . Nutrition is fundamental for all lines of child development. The stability of the bodily structure is dependent upon the materials that make it up. Malnutrition during the period of growth leaves permanent flaws in the constitution. The greatest problem throughout childhood is that of feeding."⁶

The Grand National Project

In the light of the foregoing discussions the following questions are raised in the minds of many: (1) Will Federally and locally obtained funds be used in feeding our children "the health way"? (2) Will the danger of mechanical-purposeless-spacefilling kind of feeding be avoided for all time? (3) Will the lunch period and the process of preparing and serving foods offer opportunities of practice in courtesy and formation of correct health habits of eating? (4) Will the school lunch become eventually (although in a limited way) a money making, money counting proposition? (5) Will the new knowledge of feeding be correlated with some of the subjects in the curriculum? (6) Will all principals, teachers, buyers, parents begin the study of the science of nutrition? (7) Will the National School Lunch Act contribute to the cultural growth of the child and eventually raise the health level of the nation? (8) Will the health and personal habits of the workers in the kitchen and cafeteria be

improved so that rules of hygiene and sanitation are observed meticulously? (For instance, coughing and sneezing into the palm of the hand and then touching dishes and foods.) (9) Will the hundreds of thousands of white and colored children now out of school or attending only half sessions minus the lunch, be given an even chance to attend whole sessions and benefit from the lunch with all its concomitants? (10) Will work in the kitchen and in the lunch room be offered to those pupils who come from homes extremely poor? Sometimes pupils from well provided homes work to save money for little luxuries, movies, etc. (11) Will pupils be allowed to work their way through to the detriment of their school work? etc.

The Lunch Program Should Stimulate Learning

A very practical Handbook issued by the Department of Agriculture states clearly the primary objectives and accrued gains from school lunches in the following lines: "The school lunch program is not just a feeding program. It is part of an over-all program to help children grow better in mind and body and spirit. . . . Every child will have a good lunch, and none will be singled out because he cannot pay.

"The children will learn what a good lunch is and how to choose the right kind of lunch. They will come to like many different kinds of foods. By eating together, many food habits will be improved. They will take back to their

homes menus that have been made at school, and in this way their parents also will learn.

"The children will learn to practice habits of cleanliness, to wash their hands before eating, and to expect clean food from a clean kitchen. The teachers and other school officials, with the help of the volunteers, will see that the children learn and practice good table manners. All working together will help the children to talk pleasantly at meals and to enjoy a social time with their friends." The accomplishment of these goals will require the most persistent coordinated effort as well as application of the laws of learning.

Cleanliness-Courtesy-Manners Are Bases of Culture

"Manners are minor morals" is a short but pithy sentence pronounced by John Dewey in his *Democracy and Education*. The public school is the bulwark of responsible free government. Therefore, it must take the initiative in teaching the pupil and his mother this new way of eating. A republic that is not one in name only, derives its power from the physical, mental and spiritual health of its social units.

Cleanliness, courtesy, kindly and beautiful manners are as most people know, the basic ingredients for refining human nature and developing the cultural sense. One who is not thoroughly clean is not considered refined. One lacking in courtesy is crude or coarse. Those who are not universally and always kind and gracious in manners cannot claim possessing the elementary traits of a cultured person. We must not however,

¹ *Handbook for Workers in School-Lunch Programs*: United States Department of Agriculture, NFC—3, issued August, 1943, p. 1-2.

seek in the young a machine-like perfection. These traits and tendencies will grow gradually expressing themselves with eager spontaneity.

*The Following Rules May Be Observed
in the Lunch Room:*

1. Have thoroughly clean hands before eating
2. Stand in line straight and take your turn without pushing
3. Say "thank you" when served
4. Sit occasionally with new pupils and get acquainted with them
5. Chew your food well before swallowing it
6. Practice always right use of silver; never carry knife to mouth
7. Never take sugar with your spoon; get a clean spoon for the sugar bowl
8. Take small bites and do not hurriedly throw food into your mouth
9. Do not make noises with the lips when eating; keep mouth closed
10. Do not spread the food all over the plate
11. Do not lick your fingers; wipe them with paper towel
12. Do not wash down food with milk, coffee or water
13. Avoid loud speaking and laughing
14. Discuss pleasant subjects; do not monopolize the conversation
15. Use napkin and be sure to wipe your mouth when necessary
16. Do not speak with mouth full of food
17. Do not drop on the floor particles of food or bits of paper
18. Do not eat any food that is dropped on the floor
19. When through eating, gather whatever is left to the center of plate and place your silver on it
20. Treat workers in the lunchroom courteously

21. Never touch or pick your teeth before others
22. Learn to eat new foods
23. Do not waste food; leave a clean plate. Remember that boys and girls across the seas depend on our economy and thoughtful generosity for their very lives.
24. Never touch other people's food
25. Drink your water and milk in small drafts so that you may not breathe loudly as it is the case after hurried long gulping, etc.

Teachers or educators who have a thorough understanding of the interrelation between education and culture, agree that right habits of eating and knowledge of simple facts of health and foods should be a part of the basic training and development of young people. (This growing new knowledge of the science of nutrition, should also be the *sine qua non* of adult education). Then too, "time" is a deciding factor in the cultivation and practice of the social graces as well as good habits and breeding. One situation in particular stands out in my experience: That is rushing certain number of pupils from the lunch room to the school yard to play football or kick ball or any organized hard-hitting game in a dusty, dry, hot or cold and wet yard immediately after a ten or fifteen minute hasty lunch period. No opportunity for culture in eating is possible under such conditions of hysterical haste.

Unless culture is given due prominence in this program, the whole project misses one of its main goals. Lest this sound unduly emphatic, I wish to recall the wise words of a veteran educator. The writer one day went to have a

consultation with the late Dr. William C. Bagley regarding culture and health in the curriculum. After a good analysis he asked, "What is culture without health, and what is health without culture?" We may extend the statement by asking, "What is education without health or culture?"

Lunch Room Activities Correlated with Subjects in the Curriculum

Other suggestions for observance during lunch may be added to the foregoing list. In fact as suggested in pamphlets issued by the Federal Government, these cultural matters can be treated as a part of the general curriculum. Thus we connect *living with learning*. The entire cafeteria or lunchroom and feeding procedure could be correlated with courses of Science, Health, Geography, Art, Arithmetic and English. Local conditions, equipment, type of school, teaching ability etc. would decide the extent of this correlation for integrated education. Each class individually and collectively could make its own list of food and courtesy habits and take copies of it (written by the pupils as a test in penmanship) home so that parents may remind their children of the same practices.

It is not superfluous to reiterate these points in conduct. Eating habits are so persistent especially in their ugly aspect that we cannot start the practice of good manners too early.

Terman and Almack in their *Hygiene of the School Child* are not satis-

fied with merely feeding the hungry. Manners and hygiene come in good measure. "Nowhere," they claim, "is reform more urgent than in the lunch ceremony of the rural school. Because children live in the country is no reason why they should eat with dirty hands and hogish manners."

The Dietitian, the Principal and the Head Cook

In order to make proper behavior during the lunch period possible, dietitian, head cook, teachers, principal and volunteers and paid workers must co-operate helping to coordinate activities. An environment will be created that will be conducive to growth and good breeding in an all-round manner. It goes without saying that an integrated curriculum gives equal importance to practical matters of health, character, and culture producing the integrated personality.

A splendid dietitian will be intensely interested in the ability of the youngsters to select a good lunch. Teachers will emphasize the need of foods which apply the "magic gifts" of the various vitamins and salts. If possible they will set a good example by eating plenty of raw vegetables and fruits besides protein and fatty foods. The principal on the other hand, if well read on the subjects of hygiene, health and diet will find ample space, equipment, time and plenty of soap and water.

The principal furthermore, with open mind and appreciation for learning and the good of the pupils, will utilize the special knowledge of any teacher and place her where she can assist in the

¹ *The Hygiene of the School Child*: Lewis M. Terman and John C. Almack, rev. ed., Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1929, p. 116.

elevation of the health level of the entire school. It is probable that in some small cities and towns head cooks will be engaged to plan and serve lunch in schools. Most of them may know little or nothing of the new knowledge while some dietitians may be short on application. The writer has met both types. Teachers can bring to this grand project (1) new secrets of food; (2) suggestions regarding the introduction of new foods with valuable nutrients; (3) better ways of preparing foods to avoid wastage; (4) locating certain edibles with reasonable prices; (5) new books and articles in magazines; (6) suggestions of better methods of regulating conduct in the lunchroom or cafeteria, etc. etc.

In parenthesis we may state that teachers are very busy with the day's schedule but if interested and appreciated, they could assist as much as time and health permitted. Intelligent school authorities would concede that it is to the good of the whole school to use wise economy in appointing teachers to extra-curricular activities. For instance, a teacher who has been for many years a constant student of the science of nutrition could contribute more effectively by co-operating with the "headcook" or even the dietitian in planning menus than by keeping time on the school yard.

We are living in a land of unparalleled abundance. Where there is a will, there is a way. Nothing should be too good for any of our children when it is a question of building up their bodies, minds and spirit.

¹ *The School Cafeteria*: Mary de Garmo Bryan. F. S. Crofts and Company, New York.

² 1946, p. 22.

³ *Ibid.* p. 246.

Our Magic Hands

The human hand is the most potential instrument for good and evil according to the quality of mind and will that move it. The practice of washing the hands thoroughly immediately before eating cannot be stressed enough. The palm of the hand especially is the most dangerous germ collector and spreader. This is proven true even in persons of meticulous habits. An original composition by the whole class titled "Our Magic Hands" with drawings, may produce many rules of do's and don'ts with abiding results.

Miss de Garmo Bryan, in her recently published splendid book makes the following remarks: "The short period, allowed in some schools is harmful from the health standpoint and impossible from the social standpoint."¹ She suggests that a period of 30 or 45 minutes be allowed for lunch. This is not asking too much when we realize that the school lunch may be the only healthy happy meal some children have during the whole day in a pleasant social atmosphere. Then there is so much to learn in a cultural way.

Discussing questions of hygiene, the same author argues that "too much emphasis cannot be given to the desirability of making adequate provision for the washing of hands before eating. If wash-rooms are not easily accessible, this sanitary habit will not be established."²

Miss Bryan's recommendations are so pointed and indispensable to health and positive habit-formation that another quotation from her volume is very much in order. She states that "The drinking of liberal amounts of water is essential

to good health. Drinking fountains with refrigeration for use during warm weather must be provided in the cafeteria.¹⁰

How often have we noticed pupils, big and small take their drink from the fountains in diminutive gulps. Perhaps all these drinks taken so hurriedly because of pressing long lines of thirst-smitten youngsters, would not fill one or two glasses during the entire day. Most of them seem to wait until the bell rings for class before they begin running to the few fountains. Besides, a recess of 8 or 10 minutes does not allow much time for play, comfort and washing and drinking. Surely Miss Bryan has all these facts in mind.

Basic and Protective Foods

To simplify matters we can group essential foods into: (1) energy-supplying foods. These are measured in terms of calories derived from carbohydrates and fats; (2) the proteins and their amino acids which are utilized by the body for its building and the upkeep of tissues. This substance is also used for fuel; (3) the minerals or the salts which include the all-important calcium, sodium and other ions (salts); (4) the vitamins. All basic foods contain the above nutrients. But in planning for any meal, a healthy balance should be maintained. Also the wise planner should have in mind those nutritional elements

which are lacking in the home cooking. Supplying these abundantly would mean attaining the goal set in the Federal School Lunch Act. When we consider the fact that vitamins and salts are lost in canning, processing, storing, drying, shipping and cooking, the art of serving meals looms large, and important.

The United States Department of Agriculture suggests that the 7 basic foods be included in school lunches: Briefly presented they are: (1) Leafy, green and yellow vegetables served raw, cooked, frozen, canned; (2) Citrus fruits, tomatoes, raw cabbage, other high vitamin C foods; (3) Potatoes and other vegetables and fruits, raw, cooked, frozen, canned, dried; (4) Milk, cheese, ice cream; (5) Meat, poultry, fish, eggs, dried beans, peas, and nuts, fresh, canned or cured; (6) Bread, flour and cereals, whole-grain or enriched; (7) Butter and fortified margarine.¹¹

In adhering to the above guide, *the preservation of the vitamins and salts in the meals, is the most important part of the plan.*

In relation to the above basic foods, it is essential to discuss briefly the place of the "protective foods," in the daily menu. Dr. Sherman in his *Science of Nutrition* gives due credit to Dr. E. V. McCollum of Johns Hopkins University who coined the term "protective foods" to include milk and green leafy vegetables which are rich in calcium and vitamin A values. A little later fruits for vitamin C, cheese, cream and ice cream were added with or without eggs.¹²

These protective foods may seem expensive but Dr. Sherman is quite opti-

¹⁰ *Ibid.* p. 263.

¹¹ Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics. U. S. Department of Agriculture. Washington, D.C. August, 1946.

¹² *The Science of Nutrition:* Henry C. Sherman. Columbia University Press, New York. 1943, p. 95.

mistic when he writes, "...in the United States generally the need for more fruits, vegetables, and milk can easily be met by increasing production with little if any increase in the prices of those foods as compared with the general price level."¹³ The Bureau of Human Nutrition has a very valuable suggestion regarding expenses. It maintains that, "Food does not have to be expensive to be nutritionally adequate and acceptable to children. Excessive food costs or high charges for lunches may mean that some children cannot participate. Serving expensive lunches may mean that for part of the year none of the children will have lunches at school because funds are used up."¹⁴

Bread and Milk the Staff and Nectar of Life

The easiest and simplest elements in the regimen of a school to handle are bread and milk. Yet, even here lack of knowledge of the new science can deprive the children of most essential nutrients. Since it can be taken for granted that the children eat plenty of white bread and occasionally enriched or wholegrained bread, why not serve uniformly whole grain breads including dark rye? The enriched bread upon examination is found to have only 60% of the whole grain ingredients. Some pupils would prefer having milk instead of white bread or rice pudding. They are right in their instinctive choice. Why not

give the children choice of having a pint of milk giving up an item of food which is devitalized or badly processed?

Many children do not drink even one glass of milk at home. This is more necessary to them than overcooked vegetables or colored sugar popsicles and other non-essential space-filling stuff. There are now some schools where only dark bread is served. This supplies vitamin B₁ and B₂, the nerve food, good protein and abundant energy.

If young and adult would consume more whole grained bread, brown rice and natural cereals, listlessness, a tendency to hysteria, impatience and lack of concentration would be gradually eliminated from the classroom, and life in general. The wholesomeness of whole grained loaves cannot be emphasized too strongly. One wonders why the human species has such a preference for white foods, particularly white flour. . . .

A classical example of this white flour bread and buns worship is found in Guillaume Budé's (1467-1540) enthusiastic praises of the snow-white bread served him at a banquet given in his honor at St. Peters in Rome. The French humanist, royal librarian and principal founder of the Collège de France, wrote his monarch, François Ier, that Rome had surpassed in refinement and delicacy all other nations. That if France only produced the whiter-than-snow bread of the Italian Renaissance, the art of nutrition and culture would take an advanced step. . . . Were he living today, Budé would know better than praise the long dead starchy degenerated loaf.

In course of time the French outdid their Roman cousins. In fact, their bread

¹³ *Food and Health*: Henry C. Sherman. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, p. 204.

¹⁴ *Estimating the Cost of Food for a School Lunch*: Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics. United States Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D.C. March, 1947.

is so white that snow would seem gray beside it. The writer noticed this during the lunch period in two *écoles primaires* in Cannes, France, in February, 1939. The lentil and vegetable soups were good, but the totally devitalized bread robbed the meagerly fed children of thiamin and other B family vitamins so essential for growth and steadiness of nerves. It is to be hoped that grain sent to Europe from this country will be utilized with its original health-giving nutrients. It might be wise to send some real dietitians to Europe along with foods.

Milk and dark bread should form the basic part of the school lunch. In the United States, the abundance of milk is the most delightful fact in nutrition. No country has its equal. A growing child's bones and sinews, especially his teeth, his sight, his whole body need this white nectar. From these two nutrients he will draw calcium, niacin, thiamin, riboflavin and other indispensable salts and elements.

Again I repeat Professor Sherman's comments. He asserts: "Greater prominence of milk in the individual dietary of the family, community or national food supply means a more digestible diet or better-balanced protein, mineral and vitamin content, richer calcium practically always also in its riboflavin content and vitamin A value."¹¹

The writer has had ample opportunity to study the eating habits of hundreds of pupils in the United States and other countries. She recalls in a public school in

this country and in recent times, a rather sickly-looking boy who invariably threw his meat into the garbage pail. He drank his individual half-pint bottle of milk relishingly and could have enjoyed having another bottle. When she suggested to the woman who was dishing out the stew not to give him any meat since there were other children who had very little, she answered in a "knowing tone," "He has paid 20 cents, so he should have his meat. He can do with it as he pleases; it's his." What an unintelligent way of regarding such a small but important situation.

The salad, heavy with expensive mayonnaise was dumped by many into the pail as well as the lifeless pasty macaroni also a good part of the overcooked vegetables. The pupils (ages 9-12) preferred eating carrot sticks, celery slivers, raw greenish cabbage leaves and lettuce leaves in their plain state. But unfortunately, they seldom had them, the carrot being peeled and robbed of its most valuable part just under the thin skin. In serving a meal, it is not enough to get the food. We must know how to prepare and serve it to derive the most benefit in the way of taste and health. It is not an oversimplification when a health and diet authority like Victor H. Lindlahr titles his delightful volume *You Are What You Eat*.

In closing, we may reaffirm the necessity of serving lunches in an atmosphere where socialized conduct patterns bring forth delightful dividends of buoyant health and a democratic culture inspiring the young people to responsible and creative living.

¹¹ *The Science of Nutrition*: Henry C. Sherman. Columbia University Press. 1943, p. 102.

Mr. Blodgett Goes to Washington

GILBERT BYRON

MR. BLODGETT was going to Washington. He had not been honored by a majority of those duly registered but he had been elected, by the senior class of the Middletown High School to chaperone its annual pilgrimage. To be truthful it was not entirely a matter of honoring their favorite teacher. Seniors usually chose someone whom they could easily evade for the success of the trip depended on the number of escapades they could recount over cokes at the local Sweete Shoppe. Mr. Blodgett was a shy, little man and his twenty years of teaching the constitution of the United States and all of its ramifications did not prepare him to read the law to a group of high school seniors whose diplomas were signed and waiting in the school safe. In fact, the gentle Mr. Blodgett was an ideal choice, from the standpoint of the seniors.

But Professor Henry T. Hartwell, the high school principal, had the power and privilege to name a second chaperone. That practical administrator looked the field over and chose Miss Myrtle Faucett, who had taught Latin for more semesters than she would admit, to share Mr. Blodgett's honor and responsibility. The choice was an ideal one, from the standpoint of the school board, for Miss Faucett was as strict as Mr. Blodgett was lenient. After two or more years of regular classes and after school seances, struggling with Miss Myrtle and the Gallic Wars, the

young intellectuals were prepared to endure stoically the bludgeonings life would surely bring. When the grand old seniors heard of their principal's choice, three of the more sensitive ones broke out in rashes but there was nothing that could be done about it. They smiled sweetly and packed their suitcases.

"It's just like the Missouri Compromise," Dorothy Davis said. She had won the American Legion Prize for the highest average in history during her junior year. "Half slave and half free, that's what the trip is going to be."

Professor Hartwell called Mr. Blodgett and Miss Faucett to his office the day before the trip in order to give them their final instructions. While he talked, he made copious notes on the large desk calendar.

"As you probably know, all of us would be very happy if the seniors did not take this trip to Washington," he said. "During the war we had an excuse to stop it, but now that we are enjoying peace, the trip has cropped up again. It's traditional and if the school board and I called it off, half of the town would be on our necks. Who is taking care of the money?"

"Mary Vane, the class treasurer, asked me to," Mr. Blodgett said.

"That won't do, Wilbur," Professor Hartwell said. "You know how absent-minded you are. If a panhandler asked you for a dollar, you'd give it to him. Miss Faucett will handle the money."

"That's all right with me," Wilbur said, sighing in relief.

"I used to go with the seniors every year," Professor Hartwell said, "but we had so many narrow escapes that I gave it up in deference to Mrs. Hartwell. After all, I can think of at least three of our state educators who have lost their positions because of developments occurring on Washington pilgrimages."

Wilbur felt a great void in his stomach. After twenty years in a comfortable rut, he had no desire to seek a new job. Miss Faucett reacted differently.

"You can be sure that nothing will happen on a trip I chaperone, Professor Hartwell," she said.

"I most certainly hope that you are right, Miss Faucett," the principal replied, thinking of how perfect and lifeless her Latin classes were whenever he observed them. But she certainly kept the children busy and quiet. After all, what more could an administrator desire?

"If Mr. Blodgett can handle the boys, I will handle the girls," Miss Faucett further said.

"I'll chaperone the boys," Wilbur said, preferring a word where the meaning was not so exacting.

"The time to watch them is after the day's schedule is finished," Professor Hartwell continued. "Just when your feet are beginning to ease and you know that all of them are safely in bed, you will suddenly discover that the shy, homely girl, who sat in class all year without opening her mouth, is missing and so is the captain of the football team."

"I'll keep a close watch on the football captain," Wilbur said.

"I wonder why the shy girls are that way on the Washington trip," Miss Faucett said.

"It's just a matter of opportunity," Mr. Hartwell said.

"They won't be that way with me," Miss Faucett said.

"I hope that you are correct," the principal said. "Have a good time, both of you, and remember, if anything occurs that you can't handle, telephone me." The big man arose from his chair and the teachers knew that their briefing was completed. As they passed out the office door, the twitchings of Wilbur's autonomic system warned him that the next few days would have many of the agonies which came when he ate a large slice of Mrs. Blodgett's lemon meringue pie just before retiring.

"I'll see you early in the morning, Mr. Blodgett," Miss Faucett said, "and I think that you'd better come especially early and search all of the boys' suitcases for intoxicants."

It didn't seem possible to Wilbur that they were leaving tomorrow morning. Yes, the buses would explode into action promptly and they would be away. If he could only accept the entire assignment as a lark, the little fellow thought. He smiled as his mind flashed back to the day, long ago, when he had returned from an adolescent adventure in the big city, wearing a new derby hat and sucking large peppermint wafers in an effort to conceal his sins. One thing was certain, he would not inspect the boy's suitcases. If they really wanted liquor, there was plenty in Washington.

Besides he might really discover a bottle. Wilbur went home to the little apartment and sat for a long time in his easy chair, watching the late sun color the trunk of the catalpa tree. The chair was his haven and when safely ensconced, all of his anxieties crept back into the subconscious to await for a more favorable emergence. On one occasion, when Mrs. Blodgett had suggested that they replace it with something older, an antique she had been saving for, the little fellow lost his temper and asserted his constitutional rights. Only rarely did Wilbur fly off the handle, but when he did, the most obstreperous pupils tread softly and even the school principal watched his step. Until reaction came, the usually gentle Mr. Blodgett was most unreasonable but he was a man to be reckoned with. Now, on the eve of turbulence, Wilbur turned on the radio and listened sympathetically to the tribulations of American family life. He wondered about the personal touches that mean so much, and decided to visit the drug-store before the morrow. Mrs. Blodgett interrupted his musings.

"Turn that radio off, Wilbur," she demanded. "I don't see how you can listen to such trash." Mrs. Blodgett was quite musical and even attended many recitals in the big city to the north. In the early days of their marriage, the little man had faithfully accompanied her, but the stirrings of metropolises had always terrified him and of late he had abandoned his wife in her search for culture. Mrs. Blodgett liked to listen to the Philharmonic on Sunday afternoons. The sighings of the oboe and wood winds usually put Wilbur to sleep.

"Have you packed your suitcase yet, Wilbur?" his wife asked.

"No," he said, wondering if Joan ever found Peter, and what would happen to this radio family while he was away.

"It would be just like you to wait until tomorrow morning and then not be able to find anything," Mrs. Blodgett said. "You'd better pack it while I put supper on the table."

Wilbur hated to pack a suitcase. There was something so final about gathering his clothes and putting them in a bag, particularly since he had no desire to go places. He searched his bureau, placing shirts, underwear and socks on the bed. While he was thinking of it, he slipped a bottle of soda mint tablets into the suitcase. It would be terrifying to be struck down by acid indigestion while on the trip and discover that he was without his favorite remedy. Of course, he carried another bottle of the tablets in his coat, always, but in the excitement of traveling, he might misplace them. Mrs. Blodgett came to see how he was faring.

"Why don't you take your tuxedo and wear it to the theater?" she suggested.

"I don't have room for it," the little fellow said, "besides, it would get all rumpled." Wilbur wore the tuxedo but once a year, when the junior class gave its annual prom, honoring the seniors. At other times, it hung lonely and neglected, isolated from the world and moths in a garment bag. As far as Wilbur was concerned, once a year was enough for such attire.

"You should take your tuxedo," Mrs. Blodgett repeated. Then she saw Wilbur's face getting red and knew that he

was about to fly off the handle. She retreated to the kitchen and he completed his packing, snapped the lock and slid the suitcase under the bed. At least he would not see it until morning. He was ready for supper.

Wilbur washed his hands thoroughly, soaping them twice. There were so many germs lurking in the school, brought from all quarters of the town. He wondered that he had escaped them for so long a time. He rapped on the wooden window frame. Powerful virus would be waiting for an opportunity to strike him down during the next few days. City germs were apt to be sly and tricky, more dreadful than their country cousins. . . . Of course the hospitals in the city were equipped for every emergency. . . . Yes, the men in white knew best.

"Wilbur, what are you doing?" his wife called, "the oyster pie will be cold if you don't hurry."

Oyster pie he liked. Oyster pie was his favorite dish but he wondered if this was the night to enjoy it. Suppose, through no fault of hers, Mrs. Blodgett had happened to buy contaminated oysters. They would taste just the same and hours after the buses had left, probably when they were on the ferry, in the middle of the bay, ptomaine would strike. And not a doctor could be found on the ferry. Even the soda mint tablets failed him. Wilbur sat down and inhaled the aroma of the oyster pie, studying the golden crust. It certainly smelled all right. Should he risk it?

"Where did you get the oysters?" he asked.

"At the fish market, where I always get them," his wife replied. "Please serve

me, I'm half starved."

Wilbur broke the crust and gave his wife a large helping, omitting the oysters since she never ate them. This arrangement was usually quite satisfactory for it was the oysters he loved, but tonight there seemed to be a devilish plan behind his lady's abstinence. "Schoolteacher struck down by ptomaine," the headline read, "Wife escapes." The little man sat looking into the depths of the oyster pie.

"What are you looking for, a pearl?" his wife said. "I thought you were crazy over oyster pie. Don't you feel well?"

"Oh, I'm all right," Wilbur said, but his voice belied what he said. "I'm just not hungry." He dipped several pieces of potato from the dish, broke off a piece of the crust, and covered it with the liquor from the oysters but he was careful not to include any of his favorites. It tasted wonderful, even better than usual. Yes, the condemned man ate a hearty supper, omitting the oysters.

After the meal, Wilbur dried the dishes and retired to the big chair, slipping a soda mint tablet into his mouth on the way. He was aware of a full feeling in the neighborhood of his stomach. Of course it might be the food he had just eaten but one could never be sure. He picked up the evening paper; three cases of homicide and two other violent deaths leaped from the front page. Wilbur turned to the advertising section and read the want ads. "Man Wanted, steeplejack to paint flag poles." He dropped the paper and concentrated on the feeling in the pit of his stomach. He had felt the same way many times before, and it was probably the begin-

nings of cancer or ulcer but nothing ever came of it, he thought. No, nothing ever happened, and this pleasant thought liberated him temporarily from his fears. Mrs. Blodgett's bustlings in the kitchen and the sound of dishes being placed in their racks soothed the little fellow's sensitive convolutions. He relaxed in the big chair. After all he wouldn't be climbing into the bus for twelve hours. He would enjoy these remaining hours from the impregnability of his big chair and later snug under the protective blankets, he would be safe until the alarm clock rang.

"What time are you leaving in the morning?" his wife asked.

"Eight o'clock," he said.

"I'll have breakfast about seven o'clock," she said, "and I am proud the seniors chose you. Are you all packed?"

"Just about," Wibur said. "I want to go down to the drugstore and get a gargling solution."

"Do you have a sore throat?" she asked.

"No, not yet," the little fellow said, "but you can't be too careful, especially when you are traveling."

He decided to drive the car down to the drugstore. It was only three blocks, but he liked to have the car along, just in case. Wilbur slipped the key into the ignition and stepped on the starter. He carefully backed out of the garage and looked both ways before entering the street. It was a fine spring evening with the dusk and a light mist closing out most of the world, leaving just enough to give the little fellow a pleasant sense of security. The same scene on a bright, sunny day often cow-

ered Wilbur and sent him scurrying for the apartment house door. Now, for a few moments there was a misty peace and he would make the most of it. He turned into the main street and started looking for a parking place. All of the vacant ones were on the wrong side of the street so he ran around the block and was fortunate enough to find a place just a few steps from the drugstore. The clerk was a former pupil.

"A bottle of gargling solution," Wilbur said.

"Forty-nine or sixty-nine cent size, Prof?" the clerk asked.

Wilbur took the larger size for economy and safety.

"I hear you're going with the seniors tomorrow, Prof," the clerk said. "I'll never forget the year I went. The first night, a bunch of us fellows got into the girls' rooms. You'd better watch the fire escapes. Times have changed, though. I guess the kids today aren't as ornery as we were."

"I guess not," Wilbur said.

"Don't you want to take along some headache pills?" his former pupil asked. "You never can tell when you might need them."

"No, you never can tell," Wilbur said and bought a bottle of the large economy size, the kind the doctors use.

"If I were you, Prof," the clerk said, "there is one thing I would take with me."

"What's that?" Wilbur asked.

"We've got a wonderful foot powder, and believe me, those dogs of yours are going to be killing you by the end of the first day. After the second day, it won't make any difference, you won't feel

them, they'll be numb."

Wilbur acquired the foot powder and went back to the car with his purchases. His former pupil's concern had revived his anxieties and he flooded the carburetor in his haste to get back to the apartment and the big chair. He fidgeted for five minutes, his courage evaporating with the gasoline but he finally got the car started, and under the protective influence of the pills and bottles on the car seat beside him, drove toward home. After all, he was prepared for almost any emergency which might befall him.

When Wilbur reached the apartment, he found that Mrs. Blodgett had gone out. It was the night that the choir practiced. But Deuce, their little terrier, was very much in evidence. He always sensed his master's loneliness and brought his rubber ball for Wilbur to toss. Once the game started, it was very hard to stop for the terrier was made of sturdy stuff and was very determined to get out of life the things he wanted. Wilbur finally succeeded in hiding the ball where Deuce could not find it and decided to go to bed. While he was gargling lengthily with the recently purchased solution he could hear Deuce, rooting around in the living room, still intent on finding his ball. Wilbur carefully placed the pills and gargling solution in the suitcase, undressed slowly, set the alarm, raised the window, and slipped into his twin bed. After a couple of years of connubial bliss, Mrs. Blodgett had insisted on twin beds as being more comfortable, besides it was fashionable.

The last thing the little man heard, before dozing off, was Deuce, still noisily

searching for his ball. Wilbur dreamed of hurrying mobs of people, and it seemed that they were all hunting for something. Occasionally, Miss Myrtle Faucett would come charging on the scene, and the mobs would calm down immediately. Then the seniors came, all appropriately dressed in the school colors and cheering, "We want Deuce's ball." How silly, Wilbur thought for now he knew he must be dreaming, even as he dreamed. Mrs. Blodgett came home and her entry awoke Wilbur.

"Where did you hide Deuce's ball, Wilbur," she said. "You know he won't go to bed without his ball."

"It's in my top desk drawer," Wilbur said. He heard the drawer open and Deuce's bark followed by a period of great quiet. His wife must be reading the newspaper, he thought, and with that the little man who would soon go to Washington, went to sleep. But his slumber was fitful, and he spent most of the night hunting for lost seniors and hiding from Miss Faucett's piercing eyes and sharp harangues.

The alarm clock brought him back to a world that offered little that was better. After gargling and dressing, he squeezed the orange juice while his wife made the coffee and toast. Later he swallowed a pill that contained everything necessary for power and health. Just to be on the safe side, he ate a soft boiled egg and three slices of toast with his coffee. The food tasted particularly good. Yes, the condemned man ate a hearty breakfast. In fact, he lingered so long over his food, that his wife had to remind him that it was quarter of eight. Wilbur collected his suitcase,

kissed Mrs. Blodgett goodbye, slipped a soda mint tablet into his mouth, just in case, and started out for the school, taking a deep breath on every third step. Immediately, he was conscious that something was holding him back and it was then that he realized the suitcase was much heavier than the usual brief case. It was only three blocks to the school but he began to wonder if his legs were going to negotiate the distance. He fixed his eyes on the flowers that were beginning to grace the lawns of Middletown. Beside a large oak tree he paused to observe a sprinkling of violets. Wilbur stooped and picked a violet, slipping it into his lapel. Our little man stood up and accompanied by the violet, Mr. Blodgett continued on his way to Washington. Soon he was walking along the drive which led to front door of the school. Two large buses were parked in the driveway and their running boards were teeming with activity. Above all, Wilbur could hear Miss Faucett's piercing voice.

"I want you to sit in my bus, Elsie," Miss Faucett said. "You are to sit right next to me, in my bus."

Wilbur marveled at Miss Faucett's acquisitiveness and tried to join the throng without attracting her attention. But she saw him coming.

"You're late, Mr. Blodgett," the Latin teacher said, "but you still have time to search all of the boys' suitcases." Miss Faucett made no effort to lower her voice and Wilbur knew that all of the seniors had heard her, as well as any other of Middletown's citizens within a two block radius. He glanced toward the windows of the school office wondering if Professor Hartwell had arrived and

was also in hearing distance. No, the blinds on his window were still drawn. Professor Hartwell always raised his window blinds the minute he arrived at his desk.

"I'm not going to search the boys' suitcases," Wilbur said, trying to look Miss Faucett in the eye.

"If you don't, I will," Miss Faucett said, glaring at Wilbur until his eyes dropped.

He knew that this was not an idle threat and was preparing to capitulate when Billy Klemmentz came to his assistance. Billy was the kind of boy who never studied his history but when the tests came along he often topped the class.

"You can't search our suitcases, Prof," he said, "it's unconstitutional. We just studied that in the Bill of Rights, last month."

Wilbur smiled inside. He was always elated on the rare occasions when the subject matter he taught could be put to practical use.

"That's all foolishness," Miss Faucett said. "Mr. Blodgett, if you don't search the boys' suitcases, I will."

Betty Camper, Miss Faucett's favorite student, entered the fray. "But Billy is right," she said. "Only a month ago we were reading the Bill of Rights, and in the Fourth Amendment, it says that people shall be secure in their houses. You can't search a man's house without a warrant."

Wilbur was enjoying this.

"We don't want to search any houses, just the suitcases," Miss Faucett said. After more than twenty years spent as an associate of Caesar, she cared little for this constitutional talk, but if they in-

sisted, she would get technical.

"It also says effects," Billy said. Wilbur sometimes wondered if the boy ever forgot anything.

"You're making that up," Miss Faucett said. The seniors looked at their history teacher and he knew that he must do or else. He reached inside his coat pocket and took out a copy of the Constitution of the United States. He always carried a copy of the Constitution along with the soda mint tablets. Thus his bodily and civic rights were bolstered.

"Miss Faucett," he said, "I am going to read from the Fourth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States, quote, 'The right of people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized,' unquote." There had been a respectful silence while he was reading and Wilbur had the feeling that the attention of his pupils was far better than when he read in the classroom. Even the two bus drivers had listened. And Miss Faucett, like Julius Caesar, knew when the fates had turned against her.

"All right," she said. "I will abide by the constitution this time, besides, it's eight o'clock, and if we don't want to miss the ferry, we'd better be moving."

The seniors let forth a yell, a shout that had a rebel note, and boarded the buses. This matter of where they were going to sit and with whom had been under negotiation for weeks, and most of

the girls had a boy to share the double seats. But a few of the least attractive girls and the shyest boys collected in the back seats of the buses. Miss Faucett set foot on her bus and Wilbur entered the remaining one. The drivers zoomed the motors and the seniors were off, shouting cheers as they rode through the streets of Middletown and waving to passing underclassmen who were at the moment plodding their weary way to school.

"Isn't it great to see other kids going to school and to know that you don't have to go?" Jack Tomlinson said to Wilbur.

"I suppose so," Wilbur said, intent on the feeling which had entered the region just south of his esophagus when the buses started to roll. But when they passed Professor Hartwell, striding to school with the air of authority that he donned each morning, along with his tweeds and horn-rimmed glasses, Wilbur knew what Jack had meant.

"I'll bet he will be glad to have us out of the way for a few days," Bill Klemmentz said.

"The old school will be mighty quiet without us," Dorothy Davis said. Wilbur wondered what the next few days would be like, with them.

When the pilgrims reached the town limits the cheers subsided to the hum of excited young voices. But every time they passed through a town or village, no matter how small, they cheered themselves hoarse, always spelling out the name of their alma mater that all might know the nature of the cavalcade that rolled along the concrete. Wilbur thought of the lengthy assignments in world citizenship which they had

studied during the last two weeks, and wondered.

Aided by his soda mint tablets, Wilbur's stomach was easier. The senior stomachs were made of sterner stuff for no sooner had the buses left the school when sandwiches, candy bars, and other edibles began to appear and disappear. It seemed to Wilbur that during the rest of the trip, at least one senior was always taking some form of nourishment and offering to share part of the food with his teacher.

The buses reached Matapeake in time to catch the ten o'clock ferry. They rolled across the gangplank and the seniors swarmed over the boat, most of them collecting around the refreshment stand, where a juke box attracted their attention. Soon most of them were drinking cokes and dancing, just as they did in the Sweete Shoppe. Miss Faucett came over to Wilbur. He shivered, wondering if she was going to command him to dance with her.

"Well, they can't get off the ferry and there isn't much for them to get into here," she said.

"No, I guess not," Wilbur said. "I wonder where the boys are who don't dance? I think I'll see if I can find them." He moved away. On his tour he entered the men's room and his search was ended. The missing boys were on their knees, rolling dice on the floor. Wilbur tried to glare like Miss Faucett but it didn't work.

"Hello, Prof," Charley Keene said, he was the farm boy who was so shy. "Come on and join us."

"Come on, Prof," Harry Poore said. "We won't tell Miss Faucett on you."

"You boys really shouldn't be gambling," Wilbur said mildly, crouching down beside them. "Haven't you seen the signs on the boat forbidding gambling under the penalty of the law?"

"We're just playing for pennies," Charley said, "that isn't gambling. Come on and join us." He handed Wilbur the dice. The history teacher took the dice and held them as if they were ice or fire. It was at this moment that the door opened and one of the ferry officers walked in. He was dressed very much like a policeman which made matters more terrifying.

"So I've caught you shooting crap," he said. The officer looked at Wilbur. "You are a little old to be playing with these youngsters. It's bad enough to have young boys gambling, but when an older man joins them, that's worse."

"We weren't gambling, Mister," Charley said.

"So you weren't gambling. What were you doing?"

"Did you ever hear about the experiments with dice that are being carried on at Duke University," Wilbur said, grasping at any straw.

"No," said the officer, "and don't try to tell me that you are the professor."

"He is a professor," Charley said. "He's one of our chaperones."

"They were rolling the dice and I was trying to stop them, officer," Wilbur said.

"If that's the way it was, I'll overlook it this time," the man in the gold braid said, "but you get rid of those dice. They might bite you." He walked out.

Wilbur felt like the dice had bitten him. "Let's join the others," he said,

"and let's keep this to ourselves."

"O.K., Prof," the boys said, and they left the men's room.

Standing beside the juke box again, Wilbur fingered the dice in his pocket guiltily. Miss Faucett looked in his direction and he shivered slightly. An old Middetown legend concerning Miss Faucett stated flatly that her piercing eyes could see through a brick wall. One of her most exceptable nicknames was "Old X-Ray." Wilbur's pants were made of wool and he did not breathe freely until, watching his chance, he slipped out on deck and dropped the dice over the rail.

The ferry docked in Annapolis shortly after eleven and this gave them an hour before lunch which they had previously reserved at the famous Carvel House. Wilbur soon discovered that he had transferred his love from his big chair at home to the leather seat which he occupied in the bus. Here was security of a sort and he hated to leave it and roam through the narrow streets of Annapolis.

Miss Faucett was at her best, or worst, in such a situation and rode herd on the entire group while Wilbur lagged behind and watched for stragglers. After lunch they toured the naval academy and it was then that Wilbur began to become aware of his pedal extremities. At first there was a warm glow and he only thought that the long walk had stirred his circulation. But it soon became apparent that this warmth was the result of friction between the soles of his feet and the inner soles of his shoes. He wondered if the blisters had started to form and dreamed of the time when he could soak his feet in a tub of hot water, reenforced with that magic foot balm he had purchased on that misty evening so long ago . . . but that was only last night the little man's mind said . . . but that was ages ago, came the answer as his feet warmed to their task. When he finally reached the bus he collapsed on his leather seat and slipped two soda mint tablets into his mouth. And this was the afternoon of the first day.

*"Feast not on the shore, for there
Softly breathes the tune of life.
Grapple with the waves and dare!
Immortality is strife!"*

—SIR MOHAMMED AQBAL

Bridging the Gap between General and Vocational Education in the High School

HAROLD ALBERTY

PERHAPS no problem is of greater significance in American Education today than the relationship between general and vocational education. Unless we are able to devise workable plans for providing a program which takes into account the basic fact that in our industrial civilization, technical skills are far more effectively developed than social skills,¹ and that the future of our society depends upon our ability to unify these two basic aspects of living, the future looks dark for the realization of the "American Dream." The current interest in "general education" as evidenced by the reports of colleges and the movement to reconstruct the high school curriculum in terms of "general education," "common learnings," or core implies a realization that there must be a complete and thorough re-examination of our educational system, if we are to avoid another world war which will in all probability destroy Western civilization.

Traditional Concepts of General and Vocational Education. In most secondary

schools general and vocational education are regarded as being antithetical. The purpose of general education is to transmit the cultural heritage. It consists largely of logically organized subjects in the social sciences, the humanities, abstract mathematics and science. Vocational education has one purpose—to prepare specifically for a vocation. For the most part it is devoted to imparting the skills needed on the job. Often such education is provided for in special schools, completely cut off from those which provide for general education. This plan has the unfortunate result of perpetuating the class structure in society. Youth from the higher economic levels are more or less automatically placed in the classical or college preparatory courses or schools, while the youth from low income families are "guided" into vocational courses or schools. Often the problem of narrow vocationalism is recognized, and an easy solution is found. A part of the school day is given over to "liberal" subjects. Usually, however, there is little or no connection between that phase of the student's program and that which is devoted to skill training.

In the universities, the situation is often not much better. Liberal education is divorced from the professional

¹ See Elton Mayo, *Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization*, Cambridge, Harvard University, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, 1945.

² See Howard Mumford Jones, *Education and World Tragedy*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1946.

by setting up separate schools or colleges for developing professional competencies. These colleges often recognize the need for "broadening out" and require "liberalizing courses." But again there is a definite cleavage. The student lives in two worlds. One that is cut off from the vital stream of common ideals, values, and problems, the other that looks with proud disdain upon technical competence.

Now as we examine the so-called "liberalizing program" which is supposed to provide general education we are apt to find that even it lacks the qualities which it purports to have. The program required of all on the grounds that it meets common needs and problems, turns out to be a series of highly specialized courses. The authors of the Harvard Report state the situation very well in the following passage:

"The impact of specialism has been felt not only in those phases of education which are necessarily and rightly specialistic; it has affected the whole structure of higher and even of secondary education. Teachers, themselves products of highly technical discipline, tend to reproduce their knowledge in class. The result is that each subject, being taught by an expert, tends to be so presented as to attract potential experts. This complaint is perhaps more keenly felt in colleges and universities, which naturally look to scholarship. The undergraduate in college receives his teaching from professors who, in turn, have been trained in graduate schools. And the latter are dominated by the ideal of specialization. Learning now is diversified into a myriad of specialties. Correspondingly, colleges and universities are divided into large numbers of depart-

ments, with further specialization within the departments. As a result, a student in search of a general course is commonly frustrated. Even an elementary course is devised as an introduction to a specialism within a department; it is significant only as the beginning of a series of courses of advancing complexity. In short, such introductory courses are planned for the specialist, not for the student seeking a general education."⁸

And so, it is likely to turn out that the very courses that are supposed to develop attitudes toward and acquaintance with the pressing problems which must be solved if our democracy is to survive, fail in their task. At the same time, many of them give few insights into the problems of vocational life. What is needed is a new orientation into the meaning of general and vocational education, and their relationships to each other.

A Re-interpretation of General and Vocational Education. Any re-interpretation of the respective roles of general and vocational education must take its point of departure from the purposes of education in a democracy. Perhaps no general agreement is possible on this important point, but probably most people would accept the following formulation as providing most of the essentials.

The purpose of *all* education in our democracy is to promote the optimal development of all individuals. This means that the school should foster those social arrangements, both within its own organization and in society which are most likely to provide the conditions for continuous growth. Within its own organization then it should provide for rich and varied experiences in all of the major aspects of living directed toward:

⁸ *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1945, pp. 56-57.

1. Helping the individual to meet his needs and to reconstruct and clarify his values.
2. Cultivating a sense of responsibility for behaving in such a way as to promote continuous development on the part of all citizens.
3. Helping the individual to become increasingly more competent as a contributor to the welfare of all, through working with his fellows on common problems and developing his capacities and interests in specialized fields.
4. Developing an understanding of the techniques and values of group action in solving human problems.
5. Developing a faith in intelligence as a means of solving individual and group problems.

If this general formulation is accepted, then it follows that all of the fields of knowledge are to be utilized, not as ends in themselves, but for the purpose of achieving the aims set forth. If this were done effectively all education whether labelled general or vocational would possess a liberalizing quality.

An analysis of the above conception indicates that there are two interrelated aspects of education which must be taken into account if the enterprise of optimal development of all is to be taken seriously. First, there are those ideals, understandings, and skills that each citizen should possess if he is to plan, work, and act in concert with his fellows, and second, there are those special talents, interests, and needs which are unique, or shared only by groups. This specialized aspect of human development grows out of and plays back into the common life, to vitalize and enrich it.

From the standpoint of the organiza-

tion of education it is desirable and necessary to distinguish between these two aspects of development because opportunities need to be provided for developing general citizenship (common ideals, understandings, and skills) and for the cultivation of special abilities and interests of an avocational and vocational nature. While both of these aspects should be permeated with the same spirit, content and method differ significantly. We are justified then in calling the first aspect *general education*, and the second, *special education*. When special education is directed primarily toward developing competence in making a living, we are justified in calling it *vocational education*.

A separation (in organization) between general and special education is justified at the point where special interests can no longer be effectively dealt with by groups that are organized primarily in terms of common concerns. For example, a group might be working on the common problem of housing in Columbus. Certain members of the group might be especially concerned with interior decoration, and go far beyond the common activities of the group. If and when their concerns become so specialized that the framework set up for the study of the broad problem of housing is no longer adequate, the arts as a specialized field would be a better vehicle for the pursuit of this special interest. At this point, we would be justified in calling the activities special or vocational education, depending upon the purposes of the individual or group. But individuals working in such a group are still citizens, and therefore, such specialized

education must be directed toward competence in general citizenship.

To sum up then, we may say that general education should concern itself with the development of common ideals, understandings and abilities and with the cultivation of special capacities, abilities, and interests *up to the point of developing technical competence*. Special (or vocational) education should concern itself with the development of technical proficiency in a context of common ideals, understandings, and abilities.

General Education and Vocational Preparation. From the above analysis of the nature of general and special education, it should be clear that general education must accept the responsibility for dealing with the student's specialized interests *up to the point at which a different organization of materials, specialized equipment, and specialized instruction, are necessary*. General education will teach art up to the point at which the student's interest becomes such as to require extended time in a studio or shop with instruction directed toward developing special competencies. Special instruction in science or mathematics should begin at the point at which small group or individualized instruction, directed toward helping the student to acquire more proficiency in those areas than could be expected in non-specialized citizenship activities, is needed. The following are some generalizations which are intended to define the responsibility of general education to vocational education.

1. *General education should help the student to discover and explore his capacities and interests, including those which*

have direct vocational implications. The carrying out of this program would require that the school provide for a program of guidance and counseling in close relationship to the day-to-day activities of the classroom. As a matter of fact, much of it should be done by the classroom teacher through homeroom, or core activities. This program should provide for the giving of interest and aptitude tests in connection with close observation by the teacher. Through personal counseling, the student should be led to examine critically his own capacities and interests. But to understand one's capacities and interests is not enough. Opportunities must be given for exploration. This may be done effectively through broad comprehensive units of work which are so organized as to provide activities in which *all* participate, and also activities designed to elicit the special contributions of small groups or individuals. Units dealing with community study, Problems of the Consumer, Living in the Home, Recreation and Hobbies, Communication, Transportation, and the like, offer rich opportunities for the discovery and exploration of special interests. Certainly an important aspect of such a program ought to be work experience both in and out of the school.

2. *General education should provide opportunities for developing understandings of the way the work of the world is carried on, and appreciation of the contributions of the major vocations to human welfare.* Certainly, any program which succeeds only in helping the student to discover his own possibilities would be narrow and incomplete. One of the persistent demands of today is for

a better understanding and appreciation of the contributions of various occupational groups to democratic living. Much of the present-day disunity in the economic field is due to the failure of groups to understand each other. It requires a nationwide strike to impress upon us our dependence upon the work of a relatively small group of people. Even teachers have felt called upon to strike in order to bring home to the public the significance of good schools in promoting democratic living. It takes a major depression to convince us that something is wrong with the doctrine of free enterprise. Obviously the citizen in our democracy needs a high degree of literacy in the area of economic life and it is the business of general education to provide it.

3. General education should provide guidance to the individual in the selection of a vocation. This statement flows naturally from the generalizations stated above. One of the persistent needs of youth is to achieve an independent status in economic life. Much of the frustration which is prevalent among youth is due to insecurity and uncertainty. They are gradually achieving biological and emotional maturity. Dependence upon the home is shifting gradually to self-dependence. The choice of a vocation becomes crucial. The conventional school does a fairly good job of guiding youth who expect to enter college as a step toward a professional career. But the vast majority of youth will enter an occupation before or at the close of their high school careers. To this group, the school has a distinct responsibility which is seldom fully met. Certainly no one

would claim that the answer lies in shunting them into narrow vocational training at an early age, where they are cut off from their more fortunate fellows and from the broad citizenship training needed by all. General education, accompanied by careful guidance, would seem to be the only satisfactory course to pursue.

Organizing General Education to Fulfil Its Responsibilities to Vocational Education. Historically, when a new need develops, the high school meets it by instituting a new course or service, which is *added* to the present program. Some years ago, in response to the need for occupational information, courses labeled "economics civics," "occupations," or "guidance," were introduced into an already overcrowded curriculum. Such courses were almost completely detached from the other curricular offerings. Frequently they were taught by teachers who were quite unprepared. The procedure used was a copy of the methods of the academic fields. It consisted largely of assigning lessons from a textbook. No wonder the students were bored. On every hand, the school is set upon by special interests to require courses in "general business," "consumer education," "conservation," "safety," "mental hygiene," and the like. A good case can be made for all of them, but how are they to be fitted into the program? Shall they be added to the required list—to the further confusion and bewilderment of the student? What present requirements shall they displace? Should they be required only of the non-college student?

In addition to the demand made upon the school for new courses, a movement

to develop guidance programs is sweeping the country. Perhaps we should applaud this movement, but all too often it is just another service *tacked on* to the present curriculum without changing it appreciably. The guidance "expert," completely innocent of the possibilities of guidance through the curriculum, sets up his program as a thing apart.

If the school is to fulfil its obligation for a general education which meets its responsibility to the world of vocations, nothing short of a complete reorganization of the curriculum will suffice. The program which gives greatest promise is the new organization designated by such terms as "core," "social living," "general education." Built upon a thorough analysis of the basic needs, problems, and interests of adolescents in the major aspects of living, these courses supplant logically organized subjects for perhaps half of the school day. Materials from all of the fields of knowledge are utilized as they are needed. In this way, basic ideals, understandings and skills are taught without compartmentalization. Then guidance and counseling become an integral part of the day-to-day program of the school which goes on in the classroom and the immediate and wider community. Special interests grow out of and play back into this "core," thus minimizing or eliminating the break between general and special education.

A program of general education for the high school as proposed above breaks sharply with the conventional high-school program which is made up of a number of required and elective subjects. The learning activities of each subject are largely determined by the adopted

textbook. If the major problems of youth in our culture are to be dealt with realistically, subjects must give way to broad comprehensive units of work which know no subject boundaries. This calls for a drastic program of curriculum reorganization. It calls for a broadly trained teacher with courage and imagination. Furthermore, it calls for a library which is supplied with many books, pamphlets, and periodicals dealing with contemporary problems. Such demands are not likely to be met unless the administrator sees clearly the need for change, and possesses the leadership necessary to carry out such a program.

The program of general education discussed above would occupy from one-half, to one-third of the student's time. The remaining part of his time would be given over to special and vocational education. Advanced courses in mathematics, science, history, the arts, foreign languages, and vocational subjects taught primarily with reference to meeting the students' specialized needs and interests, and secondarily, with reference to the contributions of such subjects to general citizenship, would provide the content of that part of the program not preempted by general education. Thus all students at a given grade level, regardless of intelligence quotients, or special interests and needs would be grouped together for general education for a large block of time in the school day. For the remaining time students, upon the basis of a guidance and counseling program, would pursue individualized activities or specialized activities, of a non-vocational or vocational character.

What are the advantages of this pro-

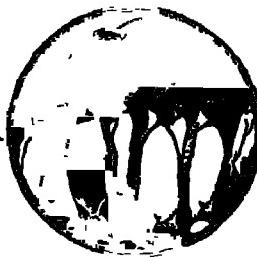
gram? *First*, it provides for a concerted attack upon the problems of general citizenship which must be solved if we are to maintain and extend the democratic way of life. *Second*, it breaks down the artificial barriers among the various academic subjects. *Third*, it recognizes and provides for the interrelationships

between general and vocational education. *Fourth*, it helps to break down the barriers among economic and social classes by avoiding the segregation of students upon the basis of intelligence, economic level or vocational destination. *Fifth*, it makes guidance an integral part of the day-to-day life of the school.

There are three possible levels at which Christmas can be celebrated. There is the Christian Christmas proper, which is rejoicing founded upon an act of worship and thanksgiving. There is what we may call the semi-Christian Christmas, a survival of the age of faith, which still cherishes those more civilized aspects of the Christmas tradition which are in fact the fruit of its Christian origin, still observing at least a great day of childhood and the home. And there is the purely pagan Christmas, which we can see being celebrated on any twenty-fifth of December by parties of half-intoxicated adults in hotels. There is surely a special tragedy just now in any decay of the festival of the home. For the home, which has always been the centre of Christian civilization, was the first and most tragic casualty of the late war.—LORD ELTON

Late Resolution!

Louise Louis



If—I were not so tired
the fire not so low
the room unlistening . . . the
heart eager to go
beyond the doorstep's border
where the long shadows fall
and a new world waiting
to an unspoken call—

If I were not so tired
from the journeys trod,
if the green fields scented
and the warm velvet sod
were not passing pageants
and the dreams in my head
all of snow on the hill
like cloud-fleece spread

in blanket ripples . . .
dazzling memory like wine—
I would join with my brother
in a World Design!

Professors of English on the Latin Question

A. M. WITHERS

I HAVE more than once taken the liberty to say in print that graduate professors of English are practically unanimous in considering an acquaintance with Latin one of its indispensable bases.

But strangely, no comment (so far as I know) has been published in professional education journals by any of these professors, or by anyone else, upon this particularly important aspect of the Latin controversy. And this is why I addressed (February 15, 1948) the following letter to the chairmen of departments of English in a number of our universities:

This is a long-considered petition to graduate schools of English, asking their support in behalf of Latin in the lower schools.

It is clear that to start on the road to proficiency in English the aid of honest, officially-backed study of Latin is imperative. One need not withhold admission that English can be learned at last by desperate efforts, and acceptably used, by persons who have had no direct contact with formal Latin study, but the very occasionalness of such a consummation proves that it has no relevancy to the larger question. In making such assertions I am sure that you feel exactly as I in the matter.

You perhaps are not as cognizant as I, however, of the fact that the teachers of Latin themselves, either in their classrooms, their journals, or in mass meetings assembled, are not in possession of the means for restoring Latin, and keeping it restored as it must be for the immediate and ultimate health of English in the country.

But if the graduate departments of English would take direct action to inform those who are rightly or wrongly our leaders in education in the lower schools that Latin is a virtual necessity for rounded professional careers, and as a basis and background for study of all our western languages, particularly English as it should be known by teachers, I believe that such action might exert considerable effect. It would have weight and authority as coming from an especially respected *outside* source which educational planners and curriculum fashioners *could not ignore*.

I am not by this letter suggesting a crusade to consume your time, needed as all of that must be in your own involved and difficult professional labors. But if you will simply write me that your department approves the content of these remarks, then I will submit them for publication, adding that the graduate schools of English in such and such universities have read my letter and expressed complete agreement with the ideas therein set forth on the subject of Latin.

Should you wish to limit in any way your approval, or to submit a substitute-statement of your own, I should faithfully record for publication with the rest of the material such limitation or substitution.

P.S. The most persistent rejoinder of opponents of Latin is that piling on more English would make Latin unnecessary for English. If you wish to take exception to my letter, in favor of this "philosophy" of English-language learning, please let me know.

Following are the answers I received:

You are certainly right in taking your strong stand for the revival of Latin as one

of the most useful disciplines that students of English can possess. That the department of English at Berkeley agrees with you is proved by the requirement of a reading knowledge of Latin (as tested by the ability to translate Vergil, Ovid, Cicero, etc.) for admission to candidacy for the Ph.D. degree. All success to your efforts.

Signed—B. H. Bronson

Chairman, Graduate Committee
in English

University of California.

In reply to your letter I should like to report that we think Latin is of the very greatest importance for the general education of students who wish to specialize in

¹ I am glad to include here also the words of another of Chicago's Professors of English, Dr. Ronald Crane: "I haven't the least doubt in my mind that work in foreign languages and literatures, both ancient and modern, is of the highest importance in the equipment of students who may wish to become teachers of English. Such an equipment is possessed in some degree by all the men I know in any important academic positions in this country who have distinguished themselves by their teaching or writing on subjects connected with the English language and literature. I feel sure that all members of this department would agree with me heartily in this statement. I know that we all deplore the unfortunate results of the current tendency to relax or abandon requirements in foreign languages in the schools and colleges whose students come to us for higher work in English." (*School and Society*, March 27, 1943, p. 358.)

² Notice also the sentiments of a former Executive Officer of the same department, Professor E. H. Wright: ". . . in my opinion and in the opinion of most of my colleagues who have anything to do with the pursuit of the liberal arts the decline in the study of Latin and Greek has been the greatest loss which scholarship in the western world has ever suffered." (*The Nation's Schools*, June, 1947, p. 23.)

³ In connection with this sentence: It is surely to be doubted that any one has ever been granted the Doctor's degree in English in any of our best-reputed universities in the absence of preparation in Latin, or a "reasonable facsimile" thereof in Greek or a combination of modern foreign languages.

English language and literature.¹

Signed—Napier Wilt

Chairman of the department of
English
The University of Chicago.

I think that the department of English at Columbia is already giving such support as it is able to the study of Latin in the lower schools. We require every candidate for a Ph.D. in English to pass a thorough examination in his ability to read Latin. We do not believe in piling English upon English in our graduate work, and believe strongly in requiring a knowledge of other languages in addition to philosophy and some competence in history.²

Signed—Oscar James Campbell

Executive Officer, Department
of English and Comparative
Literature
Columbia University.

The department of English at Cornell requires a reading knowledge of French and German for graduate study. In the description of our offerings our graduate catalogue says: "Training in the Greek and Latin literatures is especially acceptable. . . . The candidate's special committee may also at its discretion require a reading knowledge of Latin." As a matter of fact, when I tabulate the applications for entrance, I always state in a special column how much Latin the candidate has had in high school and in college, and I am sure that our graduate committee regards such preparation as very important. Personally I regard Latin as essential for graduate study in English, perhaps because I graduated from an old-fashioned classical college (Hamilton) and had a Latin major as well as an English major. So far as legal requirements are concerned, however, I suppose that a student might possibly get a Doctor's degree with us without having had any Latin, but I do not know that any such student has been accepted.³

I hope that secondary schools will return to the study of Latin for all pupils who wish to obtain an education in the liberal arts, and I believe that the Latin literature which is read in the high schools should be scrutinized to see whether it is not possible to select works that are more attractive than those which were required when I was in school. Some schools have already solved this problem, greatly to the benefit of English studies.

At Cornell we have set up in the Division of Literature courses in Classical Criticism and in other classical works in translation, and such courses may be presented as part of the requirement for a major in English. In the Graduate School we have some of our best students take a minor in the Classics.

Signed—Harold W. Thompson
Chairman, Committee on Graduate Studies in English
Cornell University.

The English department at Duke University is in sympathy with your efforts to keep Latin in the lower schools, and, if possible, to get them to emphasize it more.

Signed—J. B. Hubbell
Director of Graduate Studies in English
Duke University.

Perhaps I can best make clear the attitude of the Harvard English Department toward a knowledge of Latin for its graduate students by telling you what our requirements are.

For the Master's degree we insist on evidence of three years of Latin in preparatory school, or two years in preparatory school and one in college, or one and one-half in college, or their equivalent as ex-

⁴This was for January, 1947, and consisted of 21 lines from the sixth book of the *Aeneid*, 16 lines from Cicero's *De Senectute*, and either the *Dies Irae* (18 lines) or ten lines from Bacon's *Novum Organum*. The time allowed was an hour and a half.

pressed by passing the college placement test in Latin. All candidates for the Ph.D. must give evidence of a reading knowledge of Latin by passing a special reading examination set by the department. I enclose a copy of one of these reading examinations.⁴

The department obviously believes that Latin is one of the most important tools for advanced work in English, and it will be glad to have its views made known to teachers of Latin and all others who are in any way concerned with the study of Latin in secondary schools and colleges.

Signed—B. J. Whiting
Department of English
Harvard University.

*

This is to acknowledge receipt of your letter of February 15 and to say that the English Department of the Johns Hopkins University considers it a matter of the utmost importance that students who specialize in English have a thorough grounding in Latin. Until quite recent times nearly all English writers were soaked in Latin literature; and without some first-hand knowledge of Latin scholarly work on English literature of the past is all but impossible.

We of the department also feel that the study of Latin is of great importance for all speakers of the English language since our mother tongue owes so much to Latin and has been so thoroughly influenced by that language. We regard it as desirable that the teaching of Latin be widespread in our high schools and colleges and that every high school pupil be encouraged to gain at least an elementary acquaintance with the Latin language.

Signed—Kemp Malone
Department of English
The Johns Hopkins University.

Your communication of February 15, 1948, was considered by the Committee on Graduate Work of the Department of

English of the University of Michigan at its meeting yesterday. We wish to express our general sympathy for the point of view that a knowledge of Latin has great value in the acquisition of a command of English, and that it is a highly serviceable basis and background not only for a study of the western European languages but for the respective cultures as well.

Signed—Albert H. Marckwardt
Secretary, Department of English
Language and Literature
University of Michigan.

. . . the whole question which you raise seems to me to have only one answer. The modern languages and the classical languages seem to me so intimately related that any dissociation of them is frankly impossible. That is the point of view which we have at New York University and which we have displayed in various ways in our College of Arts and Sciences. For example, all languages, ancient and modern, are united in the language and literary group of associated fields. Between the different departments of this group there is no discrimination possible. As a matter of fact the chairman of this group at present, our distinguished scholar and administrator, Professor Casper J. Kraemer, was formerly head of the Classics Department. Inasmuch as our graduate work in liberal arts and our undergraduate work are intimately related I may not be entirely outside the range of your inquiry if I say that the Classics Department of the Washington Square College, of which Professor Kraemer is chairman, and the English Department of the same college, of which I am chairman, have for years been intimately related. Several of the courses are "bridged" so that students taking them may receive major credit in either department. This is true, for example, of the course, "The Influence of the Classics on English Literature," which is identical with Classics 31-32, and which is represented by Professor Jameson

of the English Department and Mr. Grummel of the Classics Department who collaborate perfectly. In fact, Professor Jameson's undergraduate training was mainly in Latin, and Mr. Grummel's mainly in English! I use this course merely as one example of several which the two departments are jointly giving.

My personal and professional opinion as to the debt which English owes its older sister in the humanities I have expressed in an article entitled "The Classical Invasion of English Literature," published in *The Classical Journal* in 1928. In this article, I have expressed fully, I think, my sense of obligation to a language which I studied throughout my college career and which, in my opinion, is indispensable for a complete cultural and linguistic acquaintance with English.

Signed—H. A. WATT
Chairman of the English
Department
Head of the Graduate English
Department
New York University.

The English Department of the University of North Carolina is keenly sympathetic with all good movements toward strengthening Latin study programs in our schools.

Signed—C. P. LYONS
Department of English
The University of North
Carolina.

I am afraid I cannot go the whole way with you in your feeling concerning the relationship between the study of Latin and the study of English. English is basically a Germanic language, and I feel that we have sometimes overemphasized the Latin element in our vocabulary to the extent that some students sometimes feel that English is simply a form of vulgar Latin. I have every sympathy for the study of Latin and have myself devoted a good many years to that study. As it seems to me its

value is in its intellectual discipline and in its value as Latin, not English.⁵

Signed—**ALLAN G. CHESTER**

Graduate Chairman

English Language and Literature

University of Pennsylvania.

Candidates for the Ph.D. in English at Princeton are required to demonstrate their

"Professor Chester goes much farther with me than he thinks. His second sentence expresses a very essential caution. Ours is indeed a basically Germanic language. I always think intensely of that fact when I feel the grip of German songs and poems. These never have, for racial reasons, so to speak, that (wrongfully felt) air of bombast about them that so much of proud Latin (and Romance) verse possesses for Anglo-Saxon minds and hearts. In the midst of emphasis on Latin (mainly indeed as a discipline) I constantly remind students of our German linguistic kinship.

But after all we take in the Germanic side of our language heritage most largely at our mother's knee. It is the Latin, the long-word element, altogether necessary for rounding out anything like distinction in the appreciation and use of English, that we have to go to school to get and learn through sturdy application. We must indeed learn Latin "as Latin" before there can be any transfusion into our English. Professor Chester, in his superior position, probably does not realize as painfully as I the extent of college-student linguistic insensibility in relation to general language structure (best and most interestingly learned with Latin's help) and to the Latin element in our word-stock.

"Discipline" is indeed the word. The gospel of more interesting Latin readings, suggested above by Professor Thompson of Cornell (and voiced even more strongly by radio news commentator John W. Vandercook in *The Classical Journal*, March, 1946, p. 281) can easily be pushed too far for the good of students. These need above all things to associate interest with accomplishment, rather than with spontaneous physical desires and undirected or misdirected mental leanings. To paraphrase a famous saying, good digestion of Latin waits on appetite for Latin, and our English-language health on both. That appetite and digestion will come normally to young people made mindful in time of the relative necessity of Latin for future intellectual pursuits.

This gives me occasion to cite also some words of another Princetonian, formerly chairman of the English Department, Professor Gordon Hall Gerould: "Of all foreign languages,

reading knowledge of Latin in a reading examination. Normally this examination is taken during the first year of graduate work.⁶

Signed—**J. E. BENTLEY**

Chairman Graduate Committee
Princeton University.

The Executive Committee of the Department of English of Stanford University considered your letter as its meeting on April 8th.

We are heartily in sympathy with your attempt to strengthen the teaching of Latin in the high schools. It is our practice to re-

Latin and Greek most effectively awaken a student, young and old, to the possibilities of speech. On this practical ground, quite apart from other considerations, they are indispensable to a sound education." (*School and Society*, March 27, 1943, p. 357.)

Regarding the examinations in Latin for Ph.D. candidates in English, I think it probable that greater radiation of influence in favor of Latin is expected from this requirement than actually takes place—that in fact it does not go perceptibly beyond the colleges. I have been reading general professional teaching journals and professional English journals for a number of years, and have not seen half a dozen references to the value of Latin as a general language basis from the pens of teachers of English in colleges and high schools. And I wish here to call the attention of graduate schools of English to this circumstance, and urge that they investigate the actual practices of their graduates as regards placing Latin in its proper light before the students of the high schools and the high-school officials.

Those individuals who automatically detect everything in the field of education that did not come into being the day before yesterday will, in spite of the collective judgment of the professors of English, still maintain that the Latin requirement for Ph.D. candidates in English is not good. They will endeavor to rule it out as a relic of the past, a museum exhibit to set beside the armour of the knights of the middle ages. But the Latin requirement at Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, California, Stanford, and other universities is no such thing. It dates indeed no farther back than the early twenties of this present century. Prior to that time it was assumed (admittedly not always justifiably) that candidates for higher degrees in English would hardly present themselves without Latin equipment.

THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

[January]

quire a reading knowledge of Latin of all candidates for the Ph.D. degree. It has been my experience that a considerable proportion of our candidates now have to work up their Latin after entering upon graduate study. This does indeed seem an unnecessary and lamentable state of affairs.

Signed—**VIRGIL K. WHITAKER**
Acting Executive Head
Department of English
Stanford University.

In the Renaissance, my field of teaching and research, a competent knowledge of Latin is indispensable. Students seeking higher degrees in this period find themselves severely handicapped without training in Latin. I know two advanced graduate students who now, belatedly, are learning Latin in order to continue their research in English literature of the Elizabethan period. Surely it would have been economy for them to do this fundamental groundwork in high school. There is, in fact, a considerable tract of practically unexplored literary and linguistic territory waiting for students with adequate training in Latin. From time to time I have the sad duty of discouraging students who have no knowledge of Latin from working in the sixteenth century for the Ph.D. in English.

What is true for graduate students in the Renaissance is also true, in varying degrees, for those of the middle ages, of the seventeenth, and of the eighteenth century.

If promising students in high school could be induced to study Latin, they would, in my opinion, be far better qualified to pursue their work for higher degrees in college and university.

Signed—**D. T. STARNES**
Professor of English
The University of Texas.

I have never regretted the fact that I had five years of Latin, altogether, in high school and college. The training that I received in these years taught me English grammar, the meaning of numberless

English words, much of the history of English language and literature, besides providing an excellent discipline in distinguishing between right and wrong. I also found that my knowledge of Latin made French much easier to learn than it would have been otherwise, and I have had to learn French in order to understand and teach English. My one regret is that I never learned Latin literature, for I am sure that Vergil, Cicero, and Terence mean more to Latin scholars than they do to me. I wish my Latin teachers had realized my ignorance and done more to alleviate it. I have tried earnestly though often in vain, to have my children take Latin in high school.

Signed—**ROBERT ADGER LAW**
Department of English
University of Texas.

At a recent meeting of the English faculty of the University of Virginia I read the part of your letter in reference to the desirability of the study of Latin in the lower schools. I am requested by the English faculty to transmit to you the unanimous approval of this group to your position as to the need of the study of Latin in the schools.

Signed—**JAMES SOUTHALL WILSON**
Chairman, Department of
Graduate Studies
The University of Virginia.

We feel very strongly at Yale about the necessity of Latin for students in English. Our greatest difficulty in the Graduate School is the lack of preparation in language among applicants and students. We require a reading knowledge of Latin prose for the Ph.D. in English in addition to the general Graduate School requirement of a reading knowledge of French and German. Even for the M.A. we require that a student give evidence that he has had formal instruction in Latin. At the head of our description of courses in the Graduate School Catalogue is found the following statement: "The number of students that can be received in

English is limited. Selection is based not only upon the character and scope of the applicant's academic record, but also upon his ability to meet at the time of admission the requirement in Latin and the modern languages."

In addition to our insistence on the knowledge of Latin, a requirement which, by the way, eliminates a great number of otherwise able applicants, we have found from our experience that the Verbal Factor in the Graduate Record Examination, which is always required of all applicants to the Graduate School, is not apt to be distinguished if the student has never had any Latin in school. It is not too much to say that all the professors of English in the Department are alarmed at the decline of Latin studies in the schools and believe that unless Latin is again studied as it used to be the quality of our teaching and scholarship in English will be considerably lowered.

Signed—ROBERT J. MENNER

Director of Graduate Studies
in English
Yale University.

Some of the assertions of the professors above, who responded to my letter with such positive good-will, are naturally not susceptible of "mathematical" proof. But the "common sense of most" of those who are in preferred position to know is surely of higher and more credible meaning than the "common sense of most" of the others.

¹ Notice also the strong statement of this fact by Professor Starnes, of the University of Texas.

² Professor William M. Murphy, of Union College, has worded a similar thought thus: ". . . anyone honestly interested in English literature would, almost by definition, be interested in the literature of other tongues, especially French, German, and Latin." (*School and Society*, September 20, 1941, p. 219.)

At any rate we have here a pretty heavy pro-Latin artillery barrage from graduate professors of English in nearly all parts of the country.

Return of fire will have to be made with circumspection. The usual merry-making over details of declension and conjugation is not in order. Nor does the controversy hinge on whether or not young people need to be full to overflowing with word-derivations. Not one of the notes and letters on record in this paper makes any sort of reference to such considerations.

From Harvard comes word that "Latin is one of the most important tools for advanced work in English"; from Johns Hopkins, that "without some first-hand knowledge of Latin scholarly work on English literature of the past is all but impossible"; from Michigan, that "Latin is a highly serviceable basis and background, not only for a study of the western European languages, but for the respective cultures as well"; from New York University, that the modern and the classical languages are "so intimately related that any dissociation of them is frankly impossible";³ from Yale, that "the Verbal Factor in the Graduate Record Examinations (in all fields) is not apt to be distinguished if the student has never had any Latin in school."

It is on these matters that the professors of Education and others responsible for the curricula of secondary schools must join issue with the graduate professors of English.

What Is Good Teaching?

ROEN J. MAASKE

G. BERNARD SHAW's famous comment that "those who can, do; those who can't, teach," was never more untrue than in the present era in educational progress.

Formerly, the matter of judging the ability of a teacher was very largely determined in terms of the amount of knowledge acquired and retained by students, as measured by objective tests and subjective observations. That day is past. In the light of new educational objectives being stressed currently, the teacher's task becomes highly intricate and complex, and the results in terms of pupil growth and development the more unmeasurable, objectively.

One needs only to consider the varied differences in background, training, and experience of teachers and the similar differences in their groups of heterogeneous pupils to conclude that the desirable interaction called teaching is extremely difficult to analyze and appraise. In attempting an analysis of this quality of "good teaching" one might approach it from a variety of angles.

For example, is good teaching what the forceful teacher does or is it an achievement more characteristic of the studious, sympathetic-type of teacher? Or, is good teaching what the experienced teacher does, or is it more common with the enthusiastic, inexperienced teacher? The answer, naturally, is "no."

There are excellent teachers whose personality traits would place them in one or the other of these various categories.

Good teaching might be thought of as the achievement by the pupils of certain recognized objectives of education. For example, Inglis has defined education as a "process of producing, directing, and preventing changes in human beings." Possibly, then, the good teacher is one who is able to produce desirable changes in a student and prevent undesirable changes.

An analysis of good teaching might also be considered from the viewpoint of the pupils themselves. In his doctoral dissertation, Bryan¹ found that items having the most weight with junior- and senior-high-school pupils in determining the teaching ability of their teachers were: (1) Amount pupils are learning, (2) ability of the teacher to explain clearly, (3) teacher's knowledge of the subject, and (4) amount of work done by the teacher.

Kris Kold, one of the founders and teachers in the famed Danish Folk High Schools was asked by a prospective student, "What would I gain if I attended your school?" Kris Kold is reputed to have returned the question thus, "Have you a watch?", to which the student replied in the affirmative. "What happens if you don't wind it?" The student replied, "Why it runs down, of course." To this the Danish sage replied with a significant look in his eye, "Young man, if you come to my school, I will wind you up so you'll never run down." Is

¹ Roy C. Bryan. *Pupil Rating of Secondary School Teachers*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. 1937. 96 pp.

that also good teaching?

The pronouncements of the early Greek philosophers, long before the time of the educational philosopher, might give some indication of "What is good teaching?" Aristotle long ago said this: "Those who educate children well are more to be honored than even their parents, for these only give them life, those the art of living well."

Plato takes words directly from the lips of current progressives in education (or really vice versa) when he advises: "Do not train boys to learning by force and harshness; but direct them to it by what amuses their minds, so that you may be the better able to discover with accuracy the peculiar bent of the genius of each."

In the mood of the statement of Plato, the author recalls distinctly the general characteristics of his "ideal teacher." Doubtless each reader can recall one or more of his own teachers whom he might consider his "ideal teacher." Certainly the results achieved by that teacher in his or her particular case would undoubtedly constitute, in the reader's judgment, "good teaching."

The remarkable thing, however, is that such "ideal" teachers are quite different from each other. It is clearly evident that there is no set pattern into which "ideal" teachers seem to fit. Each, apparently, has certain unique characteristics.

In recent years, certain trends have seemed to depreciate the role of the teacher in his or her personal leadership in the classroom. In some classrooms, pupil initiative and various forms of creative activity, important as these demonstrations are in the total learning

process, have failed to make headway because the teacher was too content to relinquish all responsibilities for co-ordinated planning and real leadership.

In this connection, the quotation of a stranger visiting Athens as quoted in Plato's *The Laws*, will be of interest. Speaking critically of poetic contests then in vogue in Athens, he said: "The ancient and common custom of Hellas, which still prevails in Italy and Sicily, did certainly leave the decision to the body of spectators, who determined the victory by a show of hands. But this custom has been the destruction of the poets, for they now habitually compose with a view to pleasing the bad taste of their judges, and the consequence is that the spectators instruct themselves."

It is clear that, carried to extreme, teacher and pupil groups can readily fall into the same error.

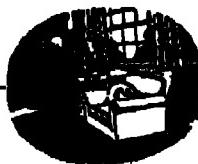
It is clearly incumbent on the good teacher to capitalize upon the interests of children, to draw out their needs and to build upon them. The good teacher will not, however, shirk her responsibility as the resourceful, stimulating leader and guide in the everyday learning activities in which teacher and pupils join.

The conclusion from these various approaches to "what is good teaching" is inevitable; namely, that good teaching cannot be defined or measured in a highly specific or objective manner.

One might, however, summarize generally by saying that good teaching may be defined as *that process in which the teacher, through ways and methods characteristic of him, guides, interests, stimulates and inspires individual pupils to develop to the maximum their individual potentialities.*

Happiness Is a Fleeting Thing

ELIZABETH UTTERBACK



Happiness is a fleeting thing—
The blush of dawn or the buds of spring;
You pursue it madly, it's almost taken,
When you find it has left you alone, forsaken.

Happiness is a fickle thing—
Today you're a pauper, who once was king;
It's April weather, sunshine and shower,
A coquette's love that was yours for an hour.

Happiness is a fragile thing—
A porcelain vase or a butterfly's wing;
You handle it gently, you fondly lend it,
But it breaks to bits, and you cannot mend it.

Contentment is an earthy thing—
Fresh bread, cold water from a spring,
A plot of ground and green things growing,
A fire on the hearth when winds are blowing.

Romance and rapture are sweet while they last,
But vine leaves soon wither when summer is past;
Though it's true happiness can be very alluring,
The peace of contentment is much more enduring.

Self-Respect as Guide of Conduct

J. B. SHOUSE

CHALLENGED as we are, psychologically and morally, by the problems of human behavior, among youth, among nations, within one's own self, we do well if we find terms to serve as epitomes of approvable programs of behavior.

We need a term, or terms, which will not suggest, in even slightest degree, either cant or preaching. Such term, or terms must be briefly and clearly descriptive to the individual, elastic in good measure, indicative of possibilities of change of connotation without an attendant feeling that the whole term has been outgrown. The phrase "self-respect" is submitted for consideration as such a term.

There is a pragmatic base for advancing this term. It appears to be in wide use where problems of conduct are present. It is found in narrative accounts and in serious passages; it is met in print and in oral expression. Let some illustrations be provided; the number and variety could be much extended. The few that are offered are picked from a fairly generous collection of samples. Only a little watchful observation is needed to discover that the phrase is of frequent appearance.

At second hand I have recently heard the story of the destruction and reconstruction of a certain man's hopes in life. As regards destruction the story is that, through excessive drinking, this man suffered loss of position, near loss of family, and, worst of all (as the account put it), loss of self-respect.

Does self-respect, then, mean so much? He who loses his self-respect knows that he has failed himself. There can be no happiness without self-respect. There is this limit beyond which one may not go without intense inner distress. From this limit, when reached, one must beat back to self-respect or admit himself without the pale of decency, not the decency of the judgment of others but of his own standard of life and behavior. And now to the promised illustrations.

"Another reward is that increase of self-respect which results from being able to discuss intelligently the world's best literature, or current events, or articles in recent magazines."

"It concerns a certain commodity called self-respect. You endanger what little I have left with your offers of . . ."

"By offering for the first time, to men who sorely need it, a way back to normalcy and self-respect . . . they may open the door to an ultimate solution."

"It wouldn't do much for my self-respect to have my brother-in-law making a place for me."

But this exact phrase "self-respect" is by no means always used. Various equivalent expressions appear; the wording does not necessarily follow the groove to convey the same idea.

Only last evening (last evening with respect to the time of this writing), on a radio program of high quality and a considerable degree of dignity, and even of solemnity, there was heard this state-

ment: "I could not live with myself if I" did so and so. That is a typical case of equivalent expression.

"B—C— read the hatred in their eyes. Their hatred for H—H—and their hatred for themselves because they were afraid."

"You have decided to let yourself down in this matter."

"But I always have a reason for everything I do. Sometimes the reasons don't satisfy anyone but me, but that's all right with me."

"I'm just trying to explain to myself why I . . ."

The important fact is that in all of these cases the standard of conduct resides within the self; it is identified with what one feels himself to be; oneself is the ultimate yardstick. In this respect the standard is absolute; but what one is is elastic, flexible, variable.

* * *

These comments, in so far as they can be traced to any particular provocative, are evoked by the reputed increase, in these days, of juvenile delinquency. Educative, preventive, and corrective measures and influences all are concerned in the existing situation. The reputed increase in undesirable conduct may or may not be due to the abandonment of "old fashioned discipline." It may or may not be linked to confusion as to the value of morality, or even as to the constitution of morality. The present suggestion is that phraseology be employed that is entirely realistic in its applicability to behavior, while not too directly and evidently pointed at issues of morality.

There is certainly no intention of

waxing cynical about morality. Only the question of practical procedure is under consideration. Current thinking about moral standards is too confused for comfort. To be sure, this confusion may easily be a symptom of a reconstructive movement, or at least a preliminary to a reconstructive movement in moral concepts. The fact is that morality does not seem to be integrated with the self, and therefore a part of the self-respect program. Morality too often seems to be a pressure from without, an imposing of the judgment of others, a matter of their conclusions and evaluations. For that reason morality often is not granted the value it is claimed to possess by those who study it most and are most sensitive to it.

As an illustration of the unsatisfactory state of our thinking about morality, I desire to reproduce four sentences from a discussion of English-Indian relations. The author of the quoted words is Edgar Snow; the discussion appeared in the *Saturday Evening Post* of April 3, 1948. It will at once be evident that these sentences are pertinent to this present issue, but were merely incidental to the broad treatment of Mr. Snow's topic.

"He (Gandhi) had demonstrated that *ahimsa*, or nonviolence, was a practical method of action as well as a system of ethics."

This sentence brings to us a rather disturbing question about the frequency (or infrequency) of coincidence of practical and ethical qualities in action. The other sentences to be quoted raise a second, but closely related question: Is being right morally to be priced below

some practical considerations, financial prosperity, for example?

First speaker: "It may very well be true, as you say, that England is financially unsound, but she has become morally right!"

Second speaker: "What a comedown. To think that we have fallen so low that nothing better can be said for us than that we are morally right!"

Is it better to be right than to be president? The weakness of that question is its failure to specify what "better" means in the question. If by "better" we mean better morally, it goes without controversy to an affirmative answer, for the question is virtually this, Is it better morally to be right (moral) than to be president? Of course the implication of the old remark, "It is better to be right than to be president," or in the form "I would rather be right than be president," is that morality is to be esteemed above position. Does morality of national conduct or of personal conduct today have a granted value above other values?

Some time ago it was my good fortune to have contact with college students in a state within the Old South. There I was surprised at the frequent voicing of the opinion that, ethically, the prevailing treatment of the colored people could not be defended. It seemed to me to be a clear case where ethical values are not given the highest rating, higher than that accorded, for example, to established practice that ramifies indefinitely throughout the broad field of current social life.

* * *

It is proposed, then, that all who are anxious to promote better behavior

try the effects of deviousness, with less emphasis on appeal to concepts of morality, and with more emphasis on self-respect. "More emphasis on self-respect" does not necessarily mean more talk about self-respect. Certainly not more talk by anyone about respecting himself; what is in mind is the building up of self-respect without excessive direct reference to it. That idea will be expanded in the course of this discussion.

First of all, attention has already been called to the fact that self-respect as the guide of conduct is already widely operative. It is a psychological force in full swing, ready to our hand. It is recognized and applied without embarrassment by all, or substantially all, people to their own behavior when that behavior is in critical strait, not necessarily morally critical strait. It entails no restraint induced by fear of seeming weak, led by the nose, of appearing puritanical or pretentious. One simply accepts responsibility to himself.

Normally any one of us may apply to himself this measure of his own conduct. And in so doing he is employing a measure that is broader than morality. Broader in the sense that it can be applied to any performance, whether or not the moral issue is involved. One may experience a bit of chagrin at realizing that what he has just done was a foolish thing to do, that he really knew better, that he can blame no one but himself for failing to do what he could very readily have done successfully.

At the same time that self-respect may relate to acts that may not involve a moral problem, it may just as readily relate to acts where the right-or-wrong

quality is important. It cannot be identified with conscience, yet it has some agreements with conscience. It might be regarded as one's conscience with respect to the acceptability of an action to one's self. In that sense it would seem to be a limited type of conscience. But it would not rest obligation upon ideas of what others would regard as one's duty. The feeling of obligation to oneself might justify our regarding self-respect as a limited type of morality. If we believe that the essence of morality lies in that quality of action that makes the action directly related to the welfare of others it is conceivable that self-respect as guide might not always lead to moral conduct. But that is a question of the constitution of morality and, as pointed out above, there is no universally accepted definition.

Self-respect is a consciously entertained standard, just as is conscience, when the question of conduct becomes acute. Ordinarily decision is immediate enough not to have recourse to standard consciously entertained vividly at the moment, but nevertheless behavior is always subject to the bounds of the standard just as much as in the case of conscience. Explicitly considered, the standard may not be evoked, but implicitly it is operative. In conscious action the self is there, reacting to the situation; even in habituated action the guide exerts its influence. We do not have to mature to become responsive to self-respect as guide to the same degree that is necessary in the matter of conscience. Being primarily a psychological, rather than a moral guide, it functions at any stage of maturity after self-consciousness

has been achieved. It is as nearly automatic as any guide that might be conceived.

It will be realized at once that this self-respect guide does not provide specific patterns of behavior. It functions as general guide against which any type of conduct may be weighed. The measuring act need not be set up verbally for deliberation.

In so far as morality has been developed within the self, or in so far as the self has developed morally, morality is in play whenever self-respect is in play. The appeal to self-respect is therefore calculated to involve the individual's morality. We may get moral-behavior results. "I would not wish to think of myself as the kind of chap who does such things" may be just as regulative as "I do not think it right to do such a thing." To be sure the thought, if given expression, might be vastly less pompous in tone than the formal words just used. "That wouldn't be cricket." "It just isn't done." "I'm not quite that rotten."

A bit of comparison with Warner Fite's conception of morality may not be amiss. "Morality is the self-conscious living of life." It appears to be Fite's idea that, given intelligence, one who does not exercise that intelligence in deciding on his courses of action simply is not moral. Of course that does not mean a delay in decision every time a decision must be made, every time one has to act, delay during the process of deliberation. But it does mean that the individual must bear the responsibility for choice.

Fite places responsibility definitely

within the self; no imposed obligation of duty, no standards set up from the outside, can be simply swallowed, accepted blindly from authority, to render one moral. In that respect Fite proposes a guide which, like self-respect, is an inner guide. But he seems to declare that action, so directed, is *ipso facto* moral. "The essence of morality, in brief, is responsibility; and responsibility implies freedom of choice." The self-respect guide of conduct, as here proposed, does not suggest equating morality to behavior in conformity with the dictates of self-respect.

* * *

It was pointed out above that, as the self evolves, so does the suggested guide of conduct evolve. The appeal to self-respect is an appeal to what the individual is at the moment. Fite could make the same kind of statement; his guide would be an evolving guide as intelligence matures. Conscience, too, is a variable, but conscience, if not essentially synonymous with self-respect or intelligent choice, is too often a following of a standard that is not on one's level of development, so far as the content of the action program is concerned; the appeal to conscience may be an attempt to act above one's own head, so to speak.

The important point about self-respect is that it does take full cognizance of the self, the whole self, whatever definition or description of selfhood one may adopt. The self that is self-respected is not a constant; the degree of respect the self may accord itself is not a constant, but may vary from egregious self-love to abject self-disdain.

Here is material for the labors of teachers and parents. Capitalize on the experience of the individual self, on all of his home training, on all of his school life. All education, formal and informal, is stuff out of which the developing self creates its own development.

That point of view cannot be too strongly emphasized. Direct moral training is not the only foundation for the evolution of the standard of behavior. All activities that modify knowledge, understanding, sense of value, any type of ability, motives, character, assist in development of the self. And "character" here means not merely moral character, but the essential character of the self, what it really has become, in its totality. Both breadth of base and depth of base are significant here. Not a narrow education, not a superficial experience, but outlook with wide horizon and with deep perspective will function to advantage in the making of the self whose consciousness of itself, and whose sturdy purpose is to act in ways consistent with what itself is as that consciousness reveals it to itself, is our object of concern.

I speak as though the curve of development, and therefore the curve of self-respect, were always an ascending curve. That, however, is not implied. It could be, and often is, a falling curve. The self may deteriorate; that is, the object of self-respect may deteriorate. The degree of respect accorded the self by itself may deteriorate.

One must not impute selfishness to the very operation of self-respect. That will depend on the blend that is the self. Selfishness is not an inherent quality in self-respect. Conduct that conforms

to the standard of self-respect may be of that high quality that we sometimes venture to indicate by "selflessness."

In saying that we reach the point of expanding the connotation of "self-respect." If we regard self-respect as a functioning guide of quality of action, and at the same time admit that the self may act below this standard, then the self, as respected, is manifestly other than the self as acting at the moment.

The self that is respected is a conceived self; it might be regarded as an ideal self; yet it is not that in the sense of being the best concept the self could frame of what it would wish to be or to become. A better phrase would be "idealized self," a conceived self a bit above the ordinarily-manifested self, a unity wrought out of many actual phases of the manifestation of the self to its own satisfaction. The respected self is not merely a standard or guide not imposed from without; it is not merely developed within; it is, when developed out of experiences that are desirable and admirable, a concept of sufficiently lofty character to constitute a worthy guide to actual conduct.

Self-respect is not to be identified with self-confidence, although there are interrelationships. Self-confidence rests rather largely on the history of one's successes. Confidence in one's own ability to do so and so may contribute to self-respect if the conduct, to start with, permits self-respect. But one's self-respect, manifested in relation to a particular form of conduct, may operate to prevent the doing of that item of behavior, even though one has the ability for the doing. For self-respect is first

and foremost a matter of one's approval of the things to be done.

* * *

Introduction, in the preceding section, of the thought that self-respect is more likely to lead away from selfishness than toward it induces consideration of the characterization of morality, made by W. T. Stace. For Stace makes unselfishness the dominant note in morality.

Had Stace rested his case upon this major contention there would be agreement between him and many others. But he goes on to indicate that, in his opinion, the obligation, or oughtness, is an hypothetical imperative. Do so and so if you would achieve the happiness at which your high desire is aiming. The particular act in itself seems to have no moral quality; it is a means to the moral end of achieving happiness through the medium, as an important part of the process, of promoting the happiness of others.

The comment suffices to introduce an aspect of the discussion of morality that is not usually put into bright light. That is the fact that morality has to do both with a general goal in life and with concrete acts in particular. Some discussions have restricted themselves pretty largely to delimitation of a general program of living, the search for the *summum bonum*. Other discussions have concerned themselves with detailed practical problems of conduct in large part. The interrelations between the two are more or less neglected.

Stace, in bringing forward his "hypothetical imperative," is trying to bring together the two phases of ethical thinking. That is a good undertaking. But

he presents his idea in such form as to set up a contrast with the Kantian categorical imperative. For it was Kant's contention that any item of moral behavior is in itself an *ought*, a duty. It is a doctrine of authority in relation to behavior, the authority being an ultimate authority which has determined for us what we should do, without respect to human judgment or understanding. It is an example of the "ours not to reason why" type of duty imposition.

But, of course, Kant's demand for such and such does imply a conditional clause, just as much as does Stace's. And Stace's formula contains a categorical imperative just as much as does Kant's. The difference is that Stace lays stress on the condition whereas Kant stressed the conclusion.

For Kant the important point is the act that is good *per se*. To underline that, he is content to allow the conditional clause of his proposition to remain implicit. But there is always this implied: If you would do the right, then you *must*, or *ought*, to do this. Stace, in contrast, would say something like this: *If* you wish to be happy, then seek that Holy Grail through the avenues of unselfish behavior.

One may backtrack long enough to point out that Fite's "standardless" morality follows a similar formula: Follow reason, perform in accordance with the dictates of intelligent deliberation and sound judgment, if you aspire to the good life. And certainly our own self-respect-as-guide proposition may be formulated in the same manner: Do so and so if you would maintain your self-respect.

For the formula means nothing peculiar to morality. It is applicable to any action situation. Advertise, and give good service, if you would build your business. Maintain the temperature of your oven at such and such a level, if you would have good results in baking. Follow these directions in planting your garden, if you wish a good crop of vegetables.

Now it must be realized that self-respect as guide of action has not been laid out alongside certain morality programs-in-brief for the purpose of making it just appear another way of stating the essence of morality. Stick to our theme: Here is a psychological principle which, if capitalized upon, may serve much the same purposes as morality programs in producing improved behavior.

The proposal is not simply a case of new phraseology to cover the old familiar ground. The approach is different, based upon psychology rather than upon ethics. Yet a new phraseology would be a gain in itself. A new orientation is desirable, whether in phraseology or in principle.

Josiah Royce attempted, in his philosophy of loyalty, to establish such an orientation, primarily one of terminology. He sought to shift emphasis from morality, by such name, to loyalty. Let us say that he did not have in mind any diversion from morality or from staunch adherence to high values. He sought a new lead, perhaps lest "morality" become too shopworn a word. The new lead was simple: Be loyal. Automatically it implies loyalty to that which is worth loyalty.

But let us be more specific. Loyalty to

what? To this question Royce returned the answer, Loyalty to loyalty. Is that merely a reinforced ictus? Is it just a reiteration: Be loyal, and again I say, be loyal? Not at all. Others have their loyalties, their admirations of certain values. Let me stoutly uphold their devotions. Let my loyalty be given to the loyalties of others.

Thus it is clear that Royce's indirection was a verbal indirection. For me to be loyal to that which another is loyal to, for me thus to support him in his aspirations and hopes and struggles, is that unselfish conduct which is called morality.

Self-respect as guide of conduct is not merely such a variation in phraseological approach, although it is that. As such it is susceptible to the same kind of reinforcement as was Royce's slogan: Self-respect demands self-respect. My own self-respect can be maintained only by acting in such wise as to further self-respect in others. But that is not said just to follow Royce, or to give an answer to the question: Self-respect for what? The question is meaningless, for the phrase "self-respect" carries with it its own full program.

The real significance of this approach to behavior is that it starts with a natural, not a terminological, lead. Self-respect has no need for an artificial build-up, a construction *de novo*, as does morality. It is an existent that is subject to refinement by all the normal activities of life, and it is broader than moral conduct. Self-respect can never be equated to, limited to, morality.

Within the territory of self-respecting conduct, then, there is this area that has

been demarcated and denominated as morality. And so some brief comments have been made upon certain presentations of morality. One last such comment.

A favorite theme for discussion has been the argument of determinism versus indeterminism. Does one's consciousness have really causative control over his conduct, or is behavior governed by external forces to which one is responsive and by the internal forces of what one has become and is?

To take a particular case, it is sometimes asserted that Spinoza, in his great opus *Ethic*, has taken the position of the determinist. I cannot agree with that classification of Spinoza. But let us examine the situation.

Spinoza's thought was that all that exists, material and spiritual, is God. God has a material side, or attribute, in the physical universe. God has a spiritual side, or attribute, in the world of mind. Each of the two is real; each parallels the other in every event. But they are mutually independent of each other for this parallelism. The occurrence of a material event has a counterpart in a spiritual event, but the one has no causal relation to the other. This is as true of the individual human life as of any other part of existence. For either of these states is but an incident in the life of God, for my being is only within, and literally a part of, all being which is the All Being. This line of thinking forbids one to regard himself as the master of his own fate.

One can say that he who is not master of his own fate in any detail is governed by forces other than his own conscious choice, a conclusion bearing the stamp

of determinism. But one can also contend that, since the physical can never determine the spiritual in one's life, Spinoza should not be considered a determinist. As another man has said, Spinoza was at the same time a materialist and a spiritualist.

The illustration has been introduced for the purpose of indicating that moralists achieve confusion over the puzzle of freedom, some asserting that there is room for a belief in freedom within determinism, others asserting the opposite.

Self-respect meets the requirements of a phrase that fits this controversial situation. If it be true that my conscious self-respect in respect to conduct at any

moment can have no influence upon that conduct, but can only report it, then the behavior must at least have been in line with what I conceive myself to be, or I would not experience the feeling of self-respect in relation to the act. On the other hand, if such consciousness does have an influence upon what I do, then the consciousness of self-respect is tremendously important. Self-respect, either as reporter or as guide, is germane to the event. "To thine own self be true." And the educator, as educator, can retain his own self-respect only as he strives, without coercion upon other selves, to modify those selves through facilitating rich experience, the imperative condition of self-development.

The riders in a race do not stop short when they reach the goal. There is a little finishing canter before coming to a standstill. There is time to hear the kind voice of friends and to say to one's self: "The work is done." But just as one says that, the answer comes: "The race is over, but the work never is done while the power to work remains." The canter that brings you to a standstill need not be only coming to rest. It cannot be, while you still live. For to live is to function. That is all there is in living.—OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, JR., Radio Address on His Ninetieth Birthday (1931)

Hypothesis

LAVINIA CRAWFORD



Dreary wasteland, pounding ocean,
Soundless sound, if none to hear;
Blinding light that could not dazzle,
Burning sun that could not sear.
With His plans for earth's advancement—
All the work on it in view—
To use potential knowledge
Without man, what would God do?

Moaning wind and rumbling thunder,
All unnoticed, unobserved—
Hard to think man non-existent,
And sustain the mind unblurred.
Busy nature's endless action
To what purpose would it go,
With its stress and strain and furor,
Were mankind not here to know?

Book Reviews

NOTE: *Reviews not signed have been written by the editor.*

ARCHITECTURE

THE STORY OF ARCHITECTURE IN MEXICO by Trent Elwood Sanford. New York: W. W. Norton, 1947. \$6.00.

Just as there was intermarriage between Spaniards and Indians, producing that great variety of mestizo types now populating a large part of the Western Hemisphere, especially Mexico and Peru, so the European arts brought by the *conquistadores* fused with those of the Aztecs, Mayas, and Incas, resulting in what might be called "creole style," or "Ibero-Indian fusion." It made its appearance diffidently during the first two hundred years, then at the beginning of the 18th century, burst forth so vigorously and so ostentatiously that from that time it can be classified as an independent style.

In *The Story of Architecture in Mexico* the author avowedly set out to write a history differing from existing ones on this artistic phase; he has employed social and human values to tell us the story of Mexican churches, civic buildings, and dwellings from their earliest indigenous beginnings to the present day. He stresses again and again that architecture is a human expression and a reflection of ways of life; he introduces ample background material to show the real importance of the geographical, historical, social, and economic factors, and the influence of early city churches upon subsequent growth and development of Mexican structures. He gives exceptional space to houses and housing in chapters entitled, "Second Indian Interlude: The Native Home and Village," and "The

Patio and the City."

A description of the contents will indicate the monumental scope and majesty of this work. Part I, "Anáhuac," offers an orderly statement of the daily arts of the common men and women in ancient Mexico, and an impartial appraisement of kings, gods, and spectacular customs. Part II reviews the influence of historical, religious and architectural styles in Spain on the construction of churches, palaces, and school in Mexico after the Conquest. Part III records and illustrates many beautiful and noteworthy structural treasures of the rich period of Mexican architecture from 1519-1821: the fortress churches with strongly accentuated, defensive characteristics, which "were not influenced by the Indian, but were built, rather in fear of him"; also the Baroque productions, whose "bizarre and fantastic qualities reflected the bizarre and fantastic life of the city." Thus in New Spain, which was geographically separated from the Old World and bound by no previous Christian architectural styles, designs swing along a path influenced by native ideas as well as Spanish fashions, through a dazzling climax of half-Indian, half-Spanish extravaganza, called the Ultra-Baroque or the Mexican Churrigueresque. This type was bound to arrest attention by its fantasy, undeniable beauties, its eccentricities, overdone with ornamentation, broken up and swamped by fantastic decoration. In a word, Mexico's splendid churches, convents, and time-stained palaces are products of a really great architecture, well conceived, thoroughly understood, marvelously executed, and extraordinarily impressive.

Mr. Sanford passes over hurriedly the period of Independence to the present. And in fact, those who like President Seward place Juárez in the pantheon of the American great, may take exception to a statement in Part IV: "From the standpoint of both education and civic enterprise, as well as architecture, the rule of Juárez was one of destruction rather than construction."

The author has synthesized an immense mass of material in this field of art; he has also considered such phases as the growing industrialization of the country to the south of the United States. Sanford's message is that the old structures make up an artistic heritage which is to be envied and which should not be lightly discarded. In the author's opinions, "Colonial palaces and Colonial churches may seem an economic embarrassment; but they are a fund of fascinating riches that we, in our cities, can only wish we had, but never will have."

Certainly, Mr. Sanford has given us a review both lucid and concise, clarifying our comprehension of the work of neighbors whose artistic importance we have just begun to realize; indeed his book might serve as a Baedeker to Mexican architecture. An ample bibliography gives it added value for schools, universities, and libraries. Mr. Sanford uses sixty-four plates of well chosen specimens to give an idea of Mexican structures and the styles of art.

Architecture and history together have made it possible now to draw an astonishingly life-like picture of ancient Mexico and the Mexican we know today.

EDNA LUB FURNESS

University of Wyoming



BIOGRAPHY

THE STORY OF JOHN HOPE by Ridgley Torrence. The Macmillan Company.
384 pp. \$5.00.

This is the story of John Hope, a great leader of the Negroes, his life span of hopes, aspirations, struggles, persecutions, battles

for rights for his own people, and of the great spirit of the man himself. The story begins with his Scotch ancestry, soon fuses with that of his Negro ancestry and for John Hope, himself, starts in Augusta, Georgia. His father was James Hope.

James Hope, a Scotchman born in Langholm, Scotland, in 1805 and a white man came to New York with his father in 1817. By 1831, he was in Augusta, Georgia where he joined another Scotchman, Kerr, in the wholesale dry goods business. In the course of years, he lived with Frances (Fanny) Taylor, a Negro of mixed blood and of considerable culture, because they could not, under Georgia law, be married legally. Although, they lived a short time in New York, a son, John Hope, was born to them June 2, 1868 in Georgia.

John Hope's life in Augusta, Georgia, was a strange mixture of terrific experiences with the incidents of racial tensions and conflicts in the post Civil War period which began with what is referred to as the Hamburg Massacre and its long train of consequences. A friend of his, John Dart, offered him a hundred dollars from his meager salary to help Hope go to a Northern secondary school. With this he went to Worcester University, Massachusetts, and there he made an excellent record under the guidance of Dr. Abercrombie, the head master. In this place with no racial tensions life was pleasant, and he made an excellent record. From there he went to Brown University. With small resources financially and often hard pressed for food and clothing, he struggled through the four years and graduated with honors. He received much help from the president, E. Benjamin Andrews. His experiences were helpful to him much later in counseling members of his own race and in an understanding how to get along in a society quite hostile to him and his group.

Leaving Brown University he became a teacher in Roger Williams University, Nashville, Tennessee; next a teacher in Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia. Here

he found latent intolerance and sometimes open hostility. A campaign to disfranchise the Negroes soon developed and Hope encountered all sorts of trouble. This campaign served as a medium for arousing old hates, prejudices and antagonisms. The violent speeches of Hoke Smith, the showing of the play "The Clansman," and the newspaper publicity aroused the whites to violence and the Negroes to fear and to adopt means of protection. Probably some from both groups acted unwisely. The situation broke into a riot. Houses were burned, people killed and wounded, and many Negroes fled. Others were driven from their homes. John Hope played the part of a protector of his race. In spite of these experiences, he emerged with a hopeful view, although the effects on him from this terrible experience were never lost.

It should be said that John Hope was white in color even though his ancestry was slightly Negro, and that he could have passed as a white man. Instead, he chose under all situations to identify himself with Negroes, their life and their needs.

Hope's great need for financial support for education for Negroes led him to make application to the General Education Board where he found Wallace Buttrick, a great friend of all Southern people. In the end, he received great help from this agency. His work in Atlanta University and at Roger Williams University was the promotion of liberal arts education for Negroes in-contrast to the work of Booker T. Washington. W. E. B. DuBois criticized him for appealing to Washington for help in a financial crisis, but Hope retained him as a friend.

In 1912, Hope visited England and Scotland, the home of his paternal ancestors. This was at the invitation of Samuel Priestly Smith of Yorkshire. Lecture engagements in England paid his expenses. He found that he was accepted intellectually and socially, and for the first time saw freedom in a better guise than at home.

In the decade of 1910 to 1920 lynch-

ing and gang activities greatly increased throughout the whole country. These were aggravated by the tension of World War I and by the policies of the administration in Washington. This situation and others led to the development of the Inter-Racial Commission in Atlanta. In this Commission Hope played a very important part.

In a very short time Hope accepted the presidency of Morehouse College, and under his leadership he brought to this college some of the greatest Negro leaders in America. Here again, with the aid of the General Education Board and Buttrick, he managed to keep the institution going and to build a high class liberal arts college for Negroes.

During the World War I he was called to Europe as a Y.M.C.A. worker to help alleviate tensions in racial segregation and other matters in our own armed forces. He found that such tensions did not exist in England or France or on the Continent, but were active in our own armed forces. Returning to Atlanta he found one of his own boys had been murdered and the incident not followed up. This type of experience was to be repeated several times in the life of Hope, and in each case, mainly with his own funds, he carried the cases to the courts. Penalties against the guilty parties, who in each case were white persons, were usually slight, if assessed at all.

This volume is rich in materials describing the work of Hope and others in Atlanta in the gradual evolution of the cooperative higher education center for Negroes which still exists and in the social developments in which Hope worked, with both Negroes and whites. The whole story is a record of an unusual man living in poverty; working in the face of prejudice with a belief that his people could be educated and accepted and insisting that the Negro had a right to the cultural as well as the industrial phases of education.

The book shows the development of fine associations of great men of both races working together in a fine spirit. Among

these are Will Alexander, Ashby Jones and Buttrick already mentioned. The reader will be interested in the story of Bishop X who found on a Trans-Atlantic steamer that he had to associate with a person of part-Negro blood. The narrative also includes the great work done by Hope and others at the Congress of the International Y.M.C.A. in Jerusalem and his great contribution at that historic meeting. He is also given much credit for the consolidation of Negro colleges in Atlanta.

His sympathy was Catholic, his tolerance magnanimous, his vision that of a better world in which all people could live together in brotherhood.

No reviewer can picture the story as has the author of the volume. Read it until you get the spirit of this man. It is well written, well documented, and a readable narrative.

A. R. MEAD

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EDUCATION

DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR MODERN LIVING by F. B. Stratemeyer, H. L. Forkner, M. G. McKim, *et al.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 554 pp. \$3.75.

A threefold undertaking on curriculum research by the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation involves.

1. A critical appraisal of child development materials as they contribute to the curriculum.
2. A study of the social bases of the curriculum.
3. A reasoned theory of a curriculum, utilizing knowledge of children as they grow and mature in the American Society with its democratic orientation and direction.

This book is a report on the third phase of that study.

The first area of the book is concerned

with background involving the issues of curriculum construction, the nature of society, and the nature of children, adding not a great deal to other publications of the past but essential in the reasoning that follows. The resulting concept of curriculum development is one in which a child in any grade will see that what he is doing is concerned with "persistent life situations with which all members of society must be able to deal." The development of the curriculum is something in which teachers, children, the whole school, and the community will contribute.

Section five, 205 pages, analyzes and describes life situations learners face and will continue to face. A long series of charts illustrating these, including health, intellectual power, moral choice, aesthetic expression, economic, social and political structures and forces, have been prepared. Each of these major situations is analyzed under numerous headings for four stages of development: early childhood, later childhood, youth, and adulthood. Obviously here is where new ideas were introduced, where research and creative study were practiced. In work of an analytical nature such as here illustrated, the writers feel, is a challenge to teachers to build their own curricula. Here, "those most closely associated with learners should continue to study them and to add new insights into the ways in which persistent life situations are faced."

Developing the curriculum with learners, examples of teachers and learners at work, how the whole school can contribute, and how school and community can work together make up other sections of this work. To those who are concerned with fundamental skills the philosophy of these writers is expressed, "First, skills should be developed through situations in which the learner sees a real need for them." For those who are concerned with special training, "As high school youth approaches the time when he is concerned about securing

a position" then special types may be provided.

This is a book dealing with the philosophy of curriculum construction, adequately illustrated by examples and charted procedures. It will make an excellent text for any teacher or group who want to set up a background for developing the core-curriculum. The organization is clear, the description not too difficult to follow. To get the most out of it teachers will find it best to use this book slowly and systematically. To read this book, discuss it in meetings, and then do nothing more will be as wasteful as most workshops and conferences. To those who want to stick to the conventional text-book organization of subject matter this book will not be pleasing.

FORREST W. STEMPLE

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INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL by J. G. Umstattd and colleagues at B.A.U. Austin, Texas: The University Cooperative Society, 1947. pp. 195. \$2.00.

The sub-title employed by Dr. Umstattd, *An Analysis of Teaching at Biarritz American University*, presents a detailed analysis of twenty-eight well defined instructional procedures used in this post-war emergency college of 4,000 G.I. students and 290 instructors.

At Biarritz the administrative and instructional staff had been selected well in advance of the opening of the University in early September, 1945. The author says, "Many of the civilian instructors began their work doubtful of the ability of men recently from combat experiences to do standard university work. They also feared that the attractions of the famous vacation spot would be serious handicaps to study. Those doubts were dispelled after the first few days of the first term. The soldier-students proved themselves to be more mature-minded and more eager to learn

than the civilian students had been in the same courses in the professors' home institutions. With surprisingly few exceptions, the students were there for business.—They wanted their facts straight without too many academic detours."—

Here was a University teaching staff selected with keen discrimination for ability to teach, facing a group of students eager to learn and very critical in appraising and evaluating the ability of their instructors. Then, too, the teaching staff found many handicaps such as lack of well stocked libraries, a very meager supply of text books, little equipment and supplies. But with mature, eager and well motivated students these resourceful teachers soon found and used teaching procedures to meet the needs, abilities and interests of the students. In the selection of the content of this publication, the author has brought together a fine collection of descriptive accounts by the staff of various types of teaching procedures in all areas of the University program including agriculture, education, engineering, various sciences, and other liberal arts subjects, journalism, commerce, and fine arts.

After reading this publication one is strongly impressed with the fact that the author has achieved the purposes for which it was produced, viz: (1) to "reveal live methods in action to colleges and universities in the states" (2) to "cause some institutions more readily to accept credits from Biarritz at their full value" (3) to be "a source of good public relations for the Army." Any college and university teacher will find in this book very constructive procedures which will improve his competence as a teacher. Our colleges and universities in the United States are well filled with many of these same students who were in Biarritz and thousands of others of like kind. The same challenge is facing our universities right here at home and will continue to be present for at least a few years.

The college and university teacher will be particularly interested in (1) concise definitions and realistic descriptions of the various instructional methods and techniques used by the skilled and resourceful staff, a good sampling of which are the *formal lecture, the informal lecture, discussion, panel, forum, student reports, direct conversational method (languages), tutorial, laboratory, examinations and instructional techniques such as dramatization, field trips, visual aids, demonstration, guest instructors, use of local people, use of other local resources, construction, exhibitions, and written reports.* Since the lecture method is the predominating method of college and university instruction in our country, the author presents a very complete analysis of this type of classroom procedure, its proper use and its all too prevalent abuses. All teachers of adolescents and adults will be intensely interested in the numerous detailed descriptive accounts of the methods and techniques used in all areas of subject courses as reported to the administrative staff by the professors. The versatility and adaptability of many college teachers could be improved wonderfully by a serious and sincere study of the running accounts of the instructional procedures used by this group of carefully screened professors.

College and university administrators and teachers in the United States are awakening rapidly to the pressing need of active and intelligent guidance and counselling services for their students. Although the staffs of higher institutions have an awareness of this problem yet they recognize their inability to solve the problem satisfactorily to themselves and their students. Dr. Umstattd and his colleagues have presented in their publication some very significant and challenging procedures used in Biarritz University to give *special aid* to their students. College professors would get a new concept of their function as teachers by reading Chapter V, "Special Aid to Stu-

dents." A quotation by the author in concluding this chapter illustrates the true importance of this function of the good teacher to his students. To quote, "There is a definite trend to include many aspects of guidance in the work of the college teacher. It is readily admitted that great teachers have always acted as guides and counsellors, but it is also true that many college teachers in the past have not sensed their guidance function and that some have taken the sink-or-swim attitude toward their students. A few have considered it a sacred duty 'to weed out the unfit,' and they have performed the duty without benefit of objective data. The evidence presented in this chapter suggests a more general acceptance of the guidance function by college teachers." The large influx of G.I. students and others into our universities and colleges has accentuated this problem. Acquaintance with the methods used at Biarritz University in meeting most effectively this problem can be acquired through a reading of the story as told by the author and his colleagues.

Here is a book, one of a relatively small number on "Teaching at the College Level." It should be required reading for the members of every college staff in the United States.

GEORGE H. COLEBANK
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REORGANIZING THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM by Harold Alberty. The Macmillan Company, 458 pp. \$4.00.

This book has fulfilled a need for a simplified analysis of curriculum problems as are faced by students of education today. It is probably the greatest contribution to this field since the appearance of Caswell and Campbell's *Curriculum Development*.

The book is divided into five parts. The first part, containing three chapters, deals

with the need for re-thinking the purposes and program of the school, the development of a philosophy of education and an analysis of the high school child as the basis for curriculum reorganization. It sets forth ably the foundations upon which curriculum construction must take place.

The second part, containing four chapters, analyzes critically current curriculum practice and procedures as they are found in many of the public high schools of the nation. A careful contrast is made between subject centered, experience centered and the core curriculums. Procedures for reorganizing the curriculum are carefully developed step by step. While, apparently, there are but slight differences between the social functions procedure and adolescent procedures, the author has shown how the second procedure is probably superior to the first. He deals with all five procedures, but shows how the social functions and adolescent needs are the most popular in American public schools today. His discussions are very challenging to students of education and their teachers.

Another part deals with the development of instructional materials to be used in the high school. This, too, is an excellent portrayal of the many problems involved in developing instructional materials to meet the needs of modern youth.

Part IV deals with ways in which the teacher may reorganize the curriculum. More specifically, is discussed the work of the teacher in the classroom and the use of controversial issues.

The last chapter summarizes curriculum reorganization in the high school by delineating a suggested program to assist teachers and principals. No attempt is made to set a pattern for curriculum reconstruction.

The book can be used very effectively by administrators, teachers in service, teachers of curriculum construction courses in colleges and universities, and by students who are preparing to teach. It develops a com-

prehensive point of view toward high school education, seeking to develop a plan of action rather than reserving opposing theories and practice.

ROBERT C. MOON
Florida State University



ENGLISH

A COMMENTARY ON THE GENERAL PROLOGUE TO THE CANTERBURY TALES by Muriel Bowden. New York, Macmillan, 1948. 316 pp. \$4.00.

In writing her *Commentary* on Chaucer's "Prologue," Miss Muriel Bowden set herself a threefold task. She wished to serve scholars by collecting the most significant modern research and criticism on the subject; to make Chaucer's own age so "take on the colours of actuality" that the college student may be encouraged in further investigation; and to clarify obscurities in the language, ideas, customs, and institutions of the 14th century so that the poet may "speak meaningfully and provocatively" to the general reader.

In thus addressing three distinct classes of readers, the author runs the risk of failing to satisfy anyone. Miss Bowden, however, has been unexpectedly successful in discovering common grounds of interest. She has illuminated the text, presented well-considered interpretations, and brought into focus the world in which Chaucer lived. To say so much is not equivalent to saying that this is the definitive discussion of the "Prologue." It is, rather, a well written, useful book that has in large measure managed to bring the resources of scholarship to bear upon the understanding and the appreciation of the material under discussion. It does not attempt to make original exploration, nor to exhaust the subject. For the teacher or the advanced student, its chief interest may possibly lie in its bibliography and the copious notes at the end of each chapter.

The consideration of purely literary and stylistic matters in the *Commentary* is slight. Linguistic problems, as such, are seldom touched on, and vocabulary aids are held to the minimum judged essential for the inexpert.

After introductory discussions of English history, the personal experiences of Chaucer in the 1380's, and religious pilgrimages in general, Miss Bowden's procedure is to deal at some length with each of the "sondry folk, by aventure yfalle in fellowshipe." Aware that the poet often drew upon literary sources for both phrasing and details of characterization, she yet insists upon Chaucer's acuteness of observation and nearness to real life.

Indeed, it may be said that the central, unifying theme of the *Commentary* is the conviction that the pilgrims are at once literary distillations, representatives of well known 14th century types, and living, breathing, admirable, amusing, or despicable individuals. Miss Bowden has viewed most of the pilgrims in the "new light" shed by Professor Manly's searches for prototypes.

It is unfortunate that the volume carries so uninspired a title. As a fine example of the desirable attempt to make scholarship an aid, and not an added burden, to the student or reader who is not a specialist, it ought to have wide distribution.

WILLIAM J. GRIFFIN

George Peabody College
for Teachers



THE AMERICAN COLLEGE DICTIONARY
edited by Clarence L. Barnhart (with the Assistance of 355 Authorities and Specialists). Harper and Brothers. 1431 pp. \$5.00 (With thumb index, \$6.00).

This is a massive book for the money. Bound in washable, heavy-duty black buckram, it has 132,000 entries in its almost fifteen hundred 7" by 10" pages. There are 1,600 illustrations and spot maps and

1,000 groups of synonym studies. The several hundred spot maps locate places of historical importance and of literary significance often difficult to find in atlases. The illustrations supplement the definitions and have a purpose beyond decoration.

For the foundations of this dictionary the editors secured the rights to use *The Century Dictionary* and *The New Century Dictionary*. The editor of this volume was also editor of *The Thorndike-Century Senior Dictionary*, *The Thorndike-Century Junior Dictionary*, *The Thorndike-Century Beginning Dictionary*, and the *Dictionary of U. S. Army Terms*. Accordingly, it is the logical successor to these more elementary works and, based on the same principles of construction, desirable for use on the college level for those who have used the former dictionaries on the lower levels of instruction.

The procedure used in selecting entries is of interest. The basic word list was taken from *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* by Thorndike and Lorge. These are the words most frequently appearing in print. This basic list was supplemented by experts from all areas, each of whom indicated words which should be defined in his own field. Many other sources were used such as specialized word lists, glossaries, and indexes. All are arranged in a single alphabetical listing, whether abbreviations, geographical items, biographies, or foreign words or phrases. Meanings are listed according to their frequency of use rather than of their historical origin.

Etymologies are placed after the definitions, and usually indicate the age of the word in English. Synonyms and antonyms are especially selected according to their frequency of use, as shown in the Thorndike and Lorge *Teacher's Word Book* and they are keyed to definitions. Careful attention has been given to words which appear as slang in colloquial language, as technical terms as found in

literary areas, and as differing in meaning regionally.

There is a complete list of colleges, universities and other institutions of higher learning in the United States, arranged by states. There are useful study helps. These include sections on punctuation and mechanics, proof reading, preparation of manuscripts, and correspondence.

The publishers announce that "An Outline of Dictionary Study" is now in preparation which will assist students in making maximum use of an abridged dictionary. They also propose, beginning at once, to distribute periodically, free of charge, a series of pamphlets for classroom use which will deal with word study, vocabulary improvement, and other items of linguistic interest on the high school level.

Significantly, too, a permanent staff will make continuous revision, and each printing will have revisions and additions.

Even a cursory glance will indicate the great care with which the volume is constructed. The special consultants are scholars who are widely known. The editorial advisory committee is able. An enormous amount of research has entered into the preparation of this excellent work of reference. It sets a new standard in the construction of dictionaries for classroom use on the college and university level.



HISTORY

CRUSADE IN EUROPE by Dwight D. Eisenhower. Doubleday and Company, Inc., 478 pp. \$5.00.

Any history of the most widespread and destructive war in history would be a significant event in the telling. But when the story of World War II is recounted by the Supreme Commander of the Allied Forces in his memoirs, as here, it is a significant milestone in the world's history. It is a personal account by the war's most important military leader.

Much of the narrative has, of course, al-

ready been found in the contemporary press and in the serial publication of the material included in the present volume. But the day by day printings have lacked organization and interpretation and have been *surface* narratives which by their very nature could not reveal the underlying causes, the elaborate planning, and the play of the personalities involved.

The narrative is not glamorous in form except as the events make it so. It is written in straightforward direct style as befits a great history. It is simple as is suitable to a great character. There is no attempt at posing, no striving for electrifying effects.

One of the most interesting aspects for the general reader is the author's analysis of the personalities associated in this great crusade for freedom. A generous and commendatory attitude is taken toward others, especially other staff members. The author gives credit where credit is due, and assesses the efforts which his associates exerted. Though perhaps he does not describe his own efforts as fully as they deserve, the character of the author shines through the pages and reveals him as the master strategist that he is as well as the humane leader and director of men.

It is not necessary to recount the events which are described as the volume does this in ample style. A clear description of the various campaigns is found in these five hundred pages. And the book is skillfully illustrated by maps which show the military movements. For the astute reader the most valuable part of the treatment is found in the background materials, the underlying strategy and the superb tactics which resulted in the most comprehensive as well as one of the most successful campaigns in history. One has a growing feeling as he reads that the Supreme Commander himself conceived the larger outlines of the war's strategy. The narrative tells not only how the campaigns were conducted but also interprets the motives which animated each plan of action.

Because of its bearing on the present world situation a final chapter on Russia is of great value. Here one finds an interpretation and also an explanation of the final strategy of the war.

To comment on the qualifications of the author would be superfluous. As one of the most skillful military commanders in history, and one sought as a presidential candidate by a great national political party, the present president of one of the world's greatest universities, whatever he writes is immediately of interest. It is even more so when he has a theme which is of such compelling interest to every citizen of America as well as those in foreign nations. One can predict that it will be a best seller which will be of inestimable value to its readers.



PSYCHOLOGY

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY by Lester D. Crow, and Alice V. Crow, American Book Company.

After teaching Educational Psychology for more than ten years and having to make the best of texts which, while highly satisfactory in some areas, inevitably were sadly lacking in others, it is sheer joy to find one that just fits. I am sure that my satisfaction with *Educational Psychology* by Lester D. and Alice Crow will be shared by teachers of this subject everywhere when they discover this most recent publication of American Book.

Only a reading of the entire book will reveal all of its commendable features. I can suggest a few and leave the rest to be discovered by teachers and students who will certainly be using the text in the near future.

First, and possibly as important as any from the point of view of the teacher, this book is written to serve the needs of both those who begin Educational Psychology without having an introductory course in

Psychology and those who have taken such a prerequisite. Adequate definitions, explanations, and general information are included to orient those who come to Educational Psychology cold. Those students who have taken an introductory course will find this information valuable as review and refresher material without being repetitious and burdensome.

Second, this book includes an adequate treatment of the psychology of subject matter areas. So often this material is passed over lightly, as if it were of slight importance, or it is treated at such length that other vital material is omitted or merely mentioned. The Crows have achieved this fine balance of material by approaching subject matter in terms of areas rather than individual subjects. Part VI is devoted to the "Psychology of Learning Areas" and covers "acquiring the tools of comprehension and expression," "acquiring mathematical concepts," "developing an understanding of the natural and social sciences," "the development of appreciation," "education for health and safety," and "vocational exploration and preparation." Under these heads they have achieved an integration which will be highly satisfying to the teacher who has struggled either to fill in where too little material is given or to cut down where there is too much and who feels near examination time that the pupil is more confused than enlightened.

Third, experimental evidence is handled correctly. Too often texts in this field attempt to bury the student under a mass of experimental evidence in detail. Studies, experiments, investigations, and the like are recounted with quotations and careful explanations so that the book approximates a case study compendium. Then there are texts which give so little of this material that the inquiring student is forever asking for the grounds upon which statements or positions are based. In this book studies and experiments are referred to and enough of the evidence presented to substantiate the

position taken. Then footnote material is included so that the teacher or student who wishes to follow the matter further may do so. In this way the book helps the student to reach out into the experimental field while, at the same time, it does not burden him with material not necessary for his understanding of the matter at hand.

Fourth, techniques of testing, measuring, and statistics are handled under the modern concept of evaluation. This more inclusive and comprehensive point of view enables the student to see how many achievements in the field of learning, such as appreciation, have scientific standing and can be "measured" in terms of evaluation. Too often students come from a course in Educational Psychology with the idea that only those experiences which can be treated in terms of quantity and measured as such have scientific validity and that all else is intangible. The concept of evaluation emphasizes the fact that value is a measuring technique even though quantity cannot be proven.

Fifth, while treating the subject adequately for educational psychology, this text does not turn into one on Mental Hygiene in the last half, as do so many others. Mental Hygiene is included in Part VII under the general head of "Life Adjustments." Here we find the "adjustment of exceptional individuals," "behavior drives and adjustments," and "applying mental hygiene to individual adjustment."

These are a few of the major features of this book. New and striking illustrative materials, tables and charts well fitted to the text, excellent arrangement of materials, clear type well impressed, thought and discussion questions following each chapter, and challenging bibliographical material are some of the other features which will appeal to those using the book.

S. E. FROST, JR.

Brooklyn College



EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY by Arthur I. Gates, Arthur T. Jersild, T. R. McConnell and Robert C. Challman. Third Edition. 1948, The Macmillan Company. 818 pp. \$4.00.

The evolution of this volume has been interesting. Published originally in 1923 under the title of *Psychology for Students of Education*, it was authored by Gates, as was the second edition in 1930. Under 1942 copyright, its authorship was expanded to include the three other participants, and its contents considerably extended. The present edition continues both the joint authorship and the contents of the 1942 text. Gates is responsible for the chapters on intelligence, aptitudes, tests and measurements, and appraisal; Jersild, for those on child development and evaluation; McConnell, for those dealing with the learning process and with curriculum organization; and Challman, for chapters on mental hygiene, clinical psychology, and the teacher's mental health.

Each of the twenty-two chapters is designed to make available to the learner such conclusions for education and the teacher-learner situation as are presently attested by workers and experimenters in the applied field of education. As in the 1942 edition, the authors escape the danger of indoctrination of students into specific schools of psychological thought by drawing eclectically from all of them, the criterion in every case appearing to be practical values for the reader. A new chapter (XVII) has been added on Appraising the School Program Through Study of Pupils as Persons. An original chapter on the Adjustment of the Individual, which in the 1942 edition covered some 60 pages, has been reduced to 30 pages, and an additional chapter (XIX) on The Adjustment Process: Tension Reduction (50 pages) has been introduced. These represent the only new departures in the present edition; otherwise, chapter titles, paragraph and sectional headings, and general content run on about the

same throughout. At the ends of chapters, exercises for the student and revised bibliographies are appended.

Educational Psychology, and its predecessor—*Psychology for Students of Education*—have been standard texts for a quarter century in training institutions. At one time or another the present reviewer has used all of them as basal texts, and has always been well satisfied with results.

LAWRENCE A. AVERILL

State Teachers College,
Worcester, Massachusetts



PEACE OF MIND by Joshua Loth Liebman.
Simon and Schuster. 203 pp. \$2.50.

Greater peace of mind is what we have long been seeking, and close to 600,000 copies of Joshua Liebman's book have been made available through 17 printings. The book is artistically fabricated and pleasant to handle. Light in weight the content is both serious and serene in its method of presentation. The author points the way toward a balanced and satisfying philosophy of life. He fuses theology with psychology, flavoring this blend with a realistic and attractive style of composition. Listed among the best-selling non-fiction volumes over a period of many months the reader soon discovers the reason for this lasting popularity.

This is the kind of literature that meets the deepest need of our inmost nature. The author is a brilliant Boston Rabbi, richly equipped to give to religion and culture great healing power. And this is a postwar service to which millions of Americans find themselves receptive. There are 9 chapters, with titles that are definitely seductive. Here are 5 of them—Questing Inward, Fear Wears Many Masks, Grief's Slow Wisdom, Intimations of Our Immortality, Where Religion and Psychology Part—and Meet. Almost no more is needed in the way of an invitation to spiritual learning.

We are reminded of some of Harry

Fosdick's best writing in the same general field; and there are others who have found this a fruitful kind of adult education—counseling, encouraging and directing the moral lives of those who disclose the need of a lift. Thousands are today testifying to the effectiveness of Rabbi Liebman's leadership in reconstructing the lives of those who have failed to measure up to the high ideals they have set for themselves. The "dilemmas of conscience, love, fear, grief and God—crucial problems" in every type of American society are here analyzed with the insight of the master teacher and prophet.

Edgar Brightman makes this strong statement—" . . . more human than most books on psychology, more practical than most books on religion." Harry Overstreet has this to say—" . . . religion and science turning from mutual suspicion . . . the marriage of the most ancient and modern disciplines for the elevation of man's spirit." Teachers of every stage of maturity and specialized turn-of-mind will find this book a fountain-source of great help and aspiration toward the fulfilment of their highest professional hopes.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN
The Pennsylvania State College



SCIENCE

SCIENCE TEACHING by Arthur G. Hoff.
The Blakiston Company. 303 pp. \$3.75.

Science Teaching, by Arthur G. Hoff, shows plainly that the author has had wide experience in teaching science and in preparing others to teach science. The organization of his book is logical, and the style is easy and clear. The need for technique in science teaching and the history of science teaching are concisely and well discussed, with the scientific attitude being given the paramount position. Perhaps a more detailed discussion of the steps in the acquisition of this attitude would be of greater

value to the prospective teacher than his examination of tests which measure this attitude.

Dr. Hoff might have used his ten pages on the social and professional responsibilities of science teachers more effectively. He says almost nothing that applies solely to the field of science. To be sure, he mentions the care of expensive apparatus and classroom equipment and refers to "the supplies and equipment of a chemistry department." Beyond this what he says would apply to all teachers and not specifically to those who teach science.

The teacher is urged to use the prepared apparatus as it fits in with the text. There is little encouragement given to him to construct homemade apparatus, workbooks, and study guides. The author states his feeling about modern science text books as follows: "The content of the modern science textbook is based upon the best scientific information acquired to date by means of years of scientific experimentation as to the needs of pupils, interests of pupils of certain ages, needs of adult persons, and a composite of the best expert opinion.... Justification for the use of a prepared manual lies in its advantages, the most important being that the average teacher-prepared laboratory guide is certain to be inferior." This is his opinion, and he states it very frankly and goes on to say: "When this is done, much of the teacher's time and energy may be saved and more effective instruction in the subject may result."

I disagree emphatically with Dr. Hoff about teacher-prepared aids. I think teachers should be given more encouragement to make their own laboratory and study outlines and to construct effective visual aids. Even though their first efforts are simple, the work may be tailored to fit their own situations.

The unit plan is very clearly and adequately discussed. The detailed planning and organization of a unit is of definite assistance to the beginner and experienced

teacher alike. The mastery test is detailed and illustrative of a test the teacher himself might make at the completion of each unit. In a general text of this kind, the author cannot presume to outline in detail units for an entire course.

The conduct of the laboratory and directed study are very well handled. The inexperienced will find these discussions valuable. In many places the author shows that he is well aware of situations in which pupils take advantage of the beginner or even of an older teacher who is easily "taken in." He is also aware of the possibility of cheating in a pupil-graded examination.

Evaluation has a place in the teaching of any subject, and Dr. Hoff recognizes this. In fact, he says, in effect, the means for evaluating are, in the main, objective tests, designed to be valid and reliable, to meet the needs of individual differences of pupils and to require a small amount of time in scoring. He feels that pupil grading is justified and presents evidence to support its reliability with careful handling.

He gives a detailed discussion of the purpose, personnel, organization and conduct of science clubs and makes these activities enjoyable as well as beneficial. He likes movies, slides, radio, models, charts, diagrams, and workbooks and feels all of them contribute to effective teaching.

The various science rooms and equipment are treated briefly in six pages. An eight-page listing of itemized equipment for general science is given in the appendix and the last sentence reads: "Equipment and supply lists for chemistry, physics, and biology may be procured from scientific supply firms."

Up to a certain point Dr. Hoff's inference that business houses know what a teacher needs is correct; but, in the main, the teacher must depend on himself to make the most effective use of his limited funds.

The forty-three pages of the appendix are mainly concerned with tests and organized notes in chemistry and biology.

Before each of the five units a concise introduction is given. Study questions and suggestions for additional problems and projects are given at the end of each chapter, along with a bibliography.

In *Science Teaching* the author has produced a book which is fundamentally sound. It furnishes a proper basis for a science course for teachers. But the professor in charge must supplement the text with at least (1) lists of specific demonstrations and simple directions for their use, (2) connotated bibliographies, (3) advertising materials from commercial firms, (4) free and inexpensive government materials, and (5) information concerning professional organizations and their values.

W. C. McNELLY

Miami University



SOCIAL STUDIES

EUROPEAN IDEOLOGIES edited by Feliks Gross. Philosophical Library, New York. 1075 pp. \$12.00.

In a world of conflicting ideologies, half understood and adopted without regard to their implications, it is useful to have them summarized for the reader who is not a specialist. In this volume one may find a survey of political ideas of the Twentieth century as exemplified in Europe, the home of their birth. These ideas are pertinent for America because ideas which become accepted in Europe soon inevitably find their way across the Atlantic and are propagated and often accepted here.

According to the excellent preface written by the editor, the purpose is that of a synthesis-survey for those already familiar with the rudimentary principles of the ideologies. Other books have discussed Communism, Fascism and Nazism. Here, however, are ideologies of extended scope including European Pacifism, Agrarianism, Peasant Movements, Russian Libertarian

Movements, Falangism Hispanidad, Pan-slavism, PanGermanism and PanEuropeanism. Even so, those which have been included are in many instances only examples of movements which involve the many minor groups. The Catholic Church is the only example of the relationship between religion and the political ideologies.

The Introduction is by the sociologist, Robert M. MacIver, of the Columbia University faculty. He well calls attention to two levels at which the idea-systems work. The first is that at which they are the springs of collective behavior, which gives directions to groups and may divide them from each other. The second, perhaps less laudable, is where they are used by men of power to seek to win their goals through the instrumentality of propaganda.

The following quotation from MacIver's Introduction is particularly timely and well considered. It assists one to have a sympathetic attitude in interpreting them, even though he disagrees entirely with the conclusions which are reached. "Back of all these movements lie surging human needs, human values, human aspirations. Some are more concerned with the liberation of the body, from privation, from penury, from exploitation. Some are more concerned, but usually where primary wants are already in degree provided for, with the liberation of the spirit, from the gross tyrannies of power or from the limits of cramping conditions. Back of all the Machiavellian manipulation of these movements by these selfish interests and opportunist leaders there lies the eternal quest, however ill directed, for a better life in a better world. It would be the worst of ironies if that quest, because of the conflicts of ideologies through which it seeks expression, should be self-destroying."

Each author of a section is an expert in his field. For example, Max Nomad, author of the section on Communism, is at the New School for Social Research and at New York University; Algernon Lee,

whose topic is Socialism, is President of the Rand School of Social Science, New York; Rudolph Rocker, who contributes his views on Anarchism is prominent in Europe as a libertarian socialist philosopher; George M. Dimitrov, leader of the Bulgarian Peasant Party and Secretary General of the International Peasant Union, and one of the foremost ideologists of the contemporary eastern European peasant movements writes on Agrarianism; Professor Friedrich W. Foerster, the leading German humanistic philosopher, and former professor at the Universities of Munich and Vienna who was proposed for the presidency of the Reich by the left-wing republicans during the early days of the German Republic, is the author of the section on Pan-Germanism and Nazism. These are merely samplings from the twenty-four authors who are responsible for the book.

Though each contributor was free to treat his subject as he wished, a rather consistent pattern emerges. The lay reader will be surprised to learn from the historical introduction which forms the earlier section of each discussion of an ideology, that present-day movements have had a long evolution, going back a century to a century and a half to their initial stages. This plan not only places the subject in its setting for the reader, but causes him to reflect that if a movement has roots so far back, it is worthy of attention by the present-day reader.

To say that the contributors have written in a mood entirely unbiased and uncolored by their own predilections would be to claim too much. Perhaps it is an Utopian expectation which demands that one divest himself of all his own preferences as he writes on subjects which are of so much concern and moment. On the whole, one receives the impression that each author seeks to give a fair account which will be an aid to better understanding.



TRAVEL

FRANCE, PARIS AND THE PROVINCES by Roger Roumagnac and Pierre Andrieu. Translated by Marguerite Bigot and Madeleine Blaess. Whittlesey House. 455 pp. \$4.50.

Hundreds of thousands of Americans are again on the vacation march. After years of war which forced travel largely into the countries of the Western Hemisphere, the trend is again towards Europe. Last summer steamer accommodations were taken months in advance for the most favored countries and air transportation was soon exhausted. The countries of Europe have vied with each other to attract visitors, especially tourists, and have made Americans doubly welcome because it is a source of "hard" money which the countries so sorely need.

Travel has flowed rapidly into France. Several post-war guides have been issued. In most attractive form is the volume under review. It is written by Frenchmen, one of whom is an expert on French life; the other on French gastronomy. It was prepared first for G.I.'s in France and sold more than 100,000 copies in the edition published in France. Now it is published in America for the first time.

There are more than 300 illustrations in color by five leading French artists. These show French life, buildings and customs. Many are two-page spreads—maps of the different sections of Paris and the provinces of the country. These show streets, parks, buildings, theatres, the opera and museums. They are fortunately not cluttered up with too much detail.

The chapters describe briefly the different quarters of the city and surrounding country and serve well the neophyte who wishes locations rather than backgrounds. For history, literary backgrounds, and a feeling for the life of the people there are other publications which are superior.

Its admirable colored maps and views make it a de luxe gift book.

Brief Browsing in Books

The thirty-first edition of *Private Schools*, the annual survey by Porter Sargent, has come from the press recently. It follows the pattern of preceding volumes. There are appendixes which give addresses for associations, book companies, magazines, school equipment and supplies, food service equipment, school outfitters, etc., a very useful part of the manual. The price is \$7.50. It is a valuable instrument in guidance. The 1948 edition has more than one thousand pages. The first 196 pages give pithy discussions of present educational problems.

Experience through Literature written by James J. Jelinek, of the Department of Humanities and Social Studies of the University of Missouri, is a stimulating book which modifies the traditional view of teaching appreciation of English Literature. Literature, according to the author, must be considered with the reality from which it stems. "Everything that man has thought or felt or created," as the subject of literature demands that an analysis be made of its components. The price is \$2.00 for this cloth-bound volume of 40 pages. The Exposition Press, of New York, publishes it.

In the field of higher education a 64-page brochure, *A Broader Mandate for Higher Education*, written by Ordway Tead, Chairman of the Board of Higher Education of New York City, is a volume of light on pertinent problems. There is a broad sweep in the discussion as well as deep insight in these pages literally crammed with stimulating facts and suggestions. The whole gamut of educational problems in higher education is covered—professional counseling, vocational guidance, budgets, veterans, faculty publications, the quality of teaching, participation in community life,

"communism and democracy," physical property and, finally, gifts and bequests.

"Once again Indonesia is in flames," writes the translator, Nicolaas Steelink, as he makes available in English the volume by Multatuli (Edward Douwes Dekker). It tells of the present uprising against the Dutch Government and the demand of the depressed peoples for justice. The volume is a plea for what is good and beautiful in human relations, a fight for the truth and for justice. In 96 pages a good analysis of the present situation is given. The book has a list price of \$2.50. It is published by the Exposition Press, New York City. The title is *Indonesia: Once More Free Labor*.

Education for the Health Services is a 1948 document, of the Bureau of Publications, State Education Department, Albany 1, New York. It is one of the publications of The Temporary Commission on Need for a State University, appointed by Governor Dewey in 1946. The report was written by a committee of four of which George St. J. Perrott, Chief of the Division of Public Health Methods of the United States Health Service, is chairman. It gives an over-all picture of the problems of health service, including medical education. Definite recommendations are given for New York State which are pertinent also for other areas. There are 170 pages in the monograph.

American Interests in the Middle East, written by Harvey P. Hall and Carl Hermann Voss, is a December issue in the Headline Series of the Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38 Street, New York. This Series is coming to be a main source of information on international affairs. As usual the 64-page monograph sells for 35 cents. Here one finds a discussion of the

Zionist movement and its present relationships with the Arabs. Inquiry is made regarding the current outlook for our rather confused method of dealing with the Middle East which has hitherto looked to America, but is now puzzled by our actions. Co-operation is hopefully looked for. A section is given to Soviet expansion.

The American Psychological Association has sponsored a monograph by Helen Nahm, Director of the Division of Nursing Education at Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, on the subject, *An Evaluation of Selected Schools of Nursing*. Among the topics of interest are "Satisfaction with Nursing and Factors Which Are Associated with It," "Autocratic versus Democratic Beliefs and Practices of Senior Students in Schools of Nursing," "The Personality Adjustments of Senior Students in Nursing," and "Mental Hygiene Knowledge of Senior Students in Schools of Nursing." There are 97 pages in the monograph. It is published by the Stanford University Press and sells for \$2.00.

A significant pamphlet is the *Report of the Temporary Commission on the Need of a State University*, a legislative document of the State of New York. The Commission was appointed by Governor Dewey. The need is assessed by Governor Dewey in these words: "In recent years we have encountered economic conditions that are weakening the ability of private philanthropy to extend our system of colleges and universities to meet our growing needs. Already the State has increased its contribution to higher education from seven million dollars in 1940 to more than twenty million dollars at the present time. . . . If we are to meet the growing needs of our youth for higher education, private philanthropic effort must be supplemented still further by a larger measure of state and local governmental participation." The document may be obtained free from the Bureau of Publications, State Education

Department, Albany 1, New York.

Two other recent publications have been issued by the New York Commission. The first, *Inequality of Opportunity in Higher Education*, consists of more than 200 pages prepared primarily by David S. Berkowitz. Among the topics of interest elsewhere as well as in New York are: academic and geographic barriers in liberal arts colleges; barriers in medical schools; barriers in nursing and dental schools; minority group barriers; and analyses of Jewish and Negro enrollment. An appendix gives some legal aspects of discrimination. It is an interesting and important document. The second document is titled *Costs and Financing of Higher Education*, the primary author being Paul Studenski. In the 148 pages there is a comparison of expenditures in New York and other states, financing in New York as compared with other states, and unit costs.

Mervin E. Oakes has written *Children's Explanations of Natural Phenomena* as his doctoral thesis. A chapter on applications of his findings to science teaching will be of great interest to scientists and science teachers. The price is \$2.35. It is published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

A significant volume for character education is *A Greater Generation* by Ernest M. Ligon which has been published recently by The Macmillan Company. The book describes the methods and principles of character education as they have been developed in the Union College Character Research Project. The purpose of the volumes is explicitly stated in the Preface: "One basic assumption which underlies our Project is that the building of a greater generation on the foundation of character is so vital a task in our present world crisis that it behooves all Christendom to unite in achieving it." The theology underlying the study is one on which the authors aver that all Christians can agree.

Behind the By-Lines

(Continued from page 232)

has rendered to the schools of America. T. D. Martin, the author, is Director of Membership of the N.E.A., a position which he has held since 1925. Prior to his coming to this position Dr. Martin was a rural teacher, a teacher in the grades, a teacher and principal in high school and a college instructor. One of his chief interests is a code of ethics for teachers.

School Lunches for Health and Culture has been written by a member of Eta Gamma chapter of Kappa Delta Pi at New Mexico State College, Miss Ariadne A. Asidian. During the First World War she was an interpreter for the United States Army; during World War II, a supervisor of nurseries and kindergartens in a W.A.R. camp. She is now writing and lecturing.

Gilbert Byron, for many years a teacher in a Delaware high school, and a contributor of short stories and poems to THE FORUM, has now sent us another short story which is concerned with school trips to Washington, a popular educational and recreational device for seniors in American high schools. His subject is *Mr. Blodgett Goes to Washington*.

Bridging the Gap Between General and Vocational Education in the High School discusses a question becoming increasingly important as schools at the secondary level admit all of the young people of high school age. Harold Albery, the author, is Professor of Education at The Ohio State University. He has had experience as a school administrator, Principal of the University High School of The Ohio State University, and as an official in the Department of Education of the State of Ohio.

A. M. Withers, of Concord College, Athens, West Virginia, deplores the trend away from the study of the Classics in high school and college. In his article, *Professors of English on the Latin Question*, he quotes many authorities in institutions of higher learning and professional schools.

What Is Good Teaching? asks Roben J. Maaske, President of Eastern Oregon College and a member of Kappa Delta Pi at that institution. He has written numerous articles. He has been Professor of School Administration at the University of North Carolina, Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Oregon, and President of the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association.

Self-Respect as Guide of Conduct, written by J. B. Shouse, former Dean of Marshall College, had its inception as the author was teaching at the University of Mississippi in the summer of 1947. Since his retirement at Marshall College several years ago Dean Shouse has been connected with the Veterans Administration. He is a member of Phi chapter of Kappa Delta Pi.

Poets who have written for this issue are Gerhard Friedrich, of State College, Pennsylvania who wrote *On Hearing Debussy's Clair de Lune*; Gladys Vondy Robertson a former teacher and Past President of the Central Colorado Branch of the National League of American Pen Women (Denver, Colorado) who wrote *Janus*; Alma C. Mahan whose poem is *Let Dreamers Dream*; Ruth Clouse Groves, New Trier High School, Winnetka, Illinois who is the author of *Washington, D.C.*; T. R. McKenna, former teacher in Providence (R.I.) High School who wrote *Three Phases*; Louise Louis, contributor of poetry to leading newspapers, magazines and books, member of the Club Service Bureau of the New York *Herald Tribune*, who presents *Late Resolution*; Elizabeth Utterback, Assistant Professor of English in the Associated Colleges of Upper New York, who is the author of *Happiness Is a Fleeting Thing*; and Lavinia Crawford of San Francisco who wrote *Hypothesis*.

The Editor



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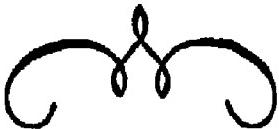


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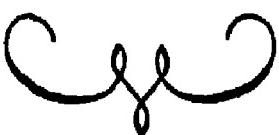
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A DIALOGUE ON PEACE AND CIVILIZATION
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The Educational Forum



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Greetings from the Executive President

WITHOUT a sense of moral obligation and the ability to translate thoughts into action, high scholarship may be not only futile but destructive. "Can you work out plans and put them into execution?" queried a co-worker recently. She had purchased an old house and was in the throes of making it into a home adapted to her family's way of life. Master teacher that she is, she was feeling somewhat frustrated in this new venture. All of us have areas in which we are more or less helpless. The significance of her question lies in how generally one is unable definitely to accomplish something however ably one may recognize, critically analyze and plan.

Psychiatrists find themselves in accord with Goethe's statement of some 150 years ago "Thought without action is disease." Not to be able to carry through develops a sense of insecurity and a loss of confidence. The frustration lessens or nullifies one's total effectiveness.

In Frederic Lilge's thought provoking book an *The Abuse of Learning*, it is stated

that "devoid of feelings of moral obligation, German scientists consented and contributed to the use of science in a war waged for the destruction of all but one nation." This attitude is of course not peculiar to the German people, nor yet to scientists. There are elements of it present everywhere, but when combined with unusual ability, the results are the more devastating.

To repeat, without a sense of moral obligation and the ability to accomplish, high scholarship may be not only futile but destructive. But when combined with an awareness of commensurate responsibility and the ability to translate thought into action, high scholarship gives promise of leadership and distinctive contribution. In the new year 1949, may we of Kappa Delta Pi be ever mindful of our purpose "to encourage high professional, intellectual, and personal standards and to recognize outstanding contributions to education."

Wm. McKinley Robinson

December 23, 1948

From the General Office

ANNOUNCEMENT was made earlier that a French edition of Dewey's *Democracy and Education* had been printed under a contract entered into with Kappa Delta Pi. By action of The Executive Council a contract has been signed with an Italian firm in Florence to bring out an Italian edition of the volume.

Revised editions of the Constitution and By-Laws and of the Officers' Manual have been published and are being furnished to chapters. A supply has been sent to each chapter so that a copy of the Constitution and By-Laws may be furnished to each initiate since September first. They will be furnished to others on request. Manuals will be furnished to each chapter to supply each officer with a copy. As this is being written they are being printed. If they are not in the hands of the counselor when this issue of THE FORUM appears, they will arrive soon.

There have been recent reprintings of Dewey's *Experience and Education* and Bode's *Democracy as a Way of Life*.

The twentieth lecture, written by Dr. Howard E. Wilson, with the title, *The United States National Commission and Unesco* has been published. It is distributed by The Macmillan Company. The price is \$1.75. It is a clear exposition of how the United States works with Unesco in its program for world understanding and international peace.

The type of honor key has been decided upon by The Executive Council and the jewelers are now preparing the dies for its manufacture. The conditions under which it will be awarded are given in the Sup-

plement of the May, 1948, issue.

At its July meeting The Executive Council discussed regional meetings. It was decided to hold them during the current year.

Progress is being made in setting up the conditions under which research awards shall be given by the Society.

Members of the Society will be gratified to learn that 13,700 copies of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM for November were distributed.

If any chapters have not submitted the names of all of their members this year, they should do so at once remitting the annual membership and subscription fee. THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM is sent only to those whose fees are paid in advance.

Chapter officers should be sure that the Permanent Record Cards are sent in immediately after the initiation is held. Approval of the Candidate Information Cards does not make the persons members. It simply gives authority for their initiation. Membership cards are sent and names listed on subscription rolls only after the Permanent Record Cards are received. Each member who has been initiated is entitled to receive the EDUCATIONAL FORUM during his first year after initiation. If anyone has not received his November issue he should make a check with his chapter to determine whether his record has been sent to the General Office. Of course we must have his correct address, and if one moves to another location, he must notify our office, as magazines are usually not forwarded by the Post Office Department.

Twenty-First Lecture in the Kappa Delta Pi Series

To Be Given by Dr. O. C. Carmichael

AT THE annual dinner of Kappa Delta Pi which is to be held at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel, Philadelphia, at 6:30 P.M. Tuesday evening, March 29, 1949, the address will be given by Dr. O. C. Carmichael, President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Dr. Carmichael was elected to membership in the Laureate Chapter about a year ago. The title of the volume on which his lecture will be based, the twenty-first in the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series, will be "The Changing Role of Higher Education." The manuscript is in the hands of The Macmillan Company, the publishers, and it is hoped that copies may be ready for distribution immediately following the close of the address.

Dr. Carmichael is a distinguished lecturer, continuing the high standards which have been set by this Series, and his lecture will treat of one of the most important problems of American education.

For the information of new readers we quote the statement about Dr. Carmichael, printed in *THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM* for May, 1948 in connection with his election as a member of the Laureate Chapter.

Dr. Carmichael, born in Alabama, spent nine years as a teacher and administrator in high schools in Alabama and two years as a college instructor before he was called to Alabama College as Dean and Assistant to the President in 1922. After four years in this position he was elected as President of Alabama College, a position he held for nine years. In 1935 he became Dean of the Graduate School and Senior College of Vanderbilt University, then Vice-Chancellor and, the following year (1937) Chancellor. He resigned in 1946 to become President of the

DR. O. C. CARMICHAEL

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. He has filled many important civic and educational positions, among them membership on President Hoover's Relief Commission to Belgium, and membership on the Central Committee of the American Red Cross. He was on the Advisory Council of the War Production Board, and on the Problems and Policies Commission of the American Council on Education. Since 1946 he has been a member of the President's Commission on Higher Education. He has been active on many national committees and commissions. Twelve universities have granted him honorary degrees.

Dr. Carmichael is chairman of the Board of Trustees of the newly-constituted State University of New York.

Annual Dinner at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel, Philadelphia

PLANS are nearing completion for the annual dinner of Kappa Delta Pi to be held during the week of the meetings of the American Association of School Administrators. A beautiful room has been reserved at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel in Philadelphia. The dinner will be served at 6:30 P.M. Tuesday evening, March 29, 1949. This hotel was the headquarters for the Democratic, Republican and Progres-

sive parties when they held their nominating conventions last summer.

As stated elsewhere in this issue the speaker for the occasion will be Dr. O. C. Carmichael, President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, recently made Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the State University of New York.

Members of Kappa Delta Pi and their friends are invited. Tickets are also available to educators in attendance at the meetings of the AASA. The price of the dinner will be \$3.50. Tickets may be secured before March 25th by addressing the Recorder-Treasurer at the General Office in Tiffin, Ohio. After that date they may be secured at the Registration Headquarters of the AASA in Philadelphia. Members are urged to secure their tickets early. The members of The Laureate Chapter and other distinguished educators are being invited as guests at the dinner which is always a notable event of the week. Several chapters are considering attending as a group.

The Executive Council will meet on Monday morning, March 28th, at 9:00 A.M. Matters which should come before this body should be presented prior to this time.



BELLEVUE-STRATFORD HOTEL

Two Loyal Members Pass Away

IT is with sorrow that we must report the death of two educators whose ties with Kappa Delta Pi were close and whose careers were distinguished.

Dr. T. S. Henry, Professor Emeritus of Psychology at Western Michigan College

of Education, who was to have been the speaker at the initiation banquet of Beta Iota chapter next April, was struck and killed by a car on November 17th at Cooper Center near Kalamazoo. Dr. Henry was a

(Continued on page 256)

The Chapters Report

ALPHA LAMBDA Chapter of the University of Denver, Denver, Colorado, plans to build their year's program upon the theme: "Our Social Responsibilities at Home and Abroad." This theme will be carried out by the following informative addresses: Dr. Wilhelmina Hill, of the University of Denver, describing the American influence on education in Japan; Dr. James Buchanan, making an appeal to teachers for world-wide concern for the Unesco; Rev. Canon Harry Watts, speaking of the influence of Christian ethics on human relations; Exchange teachers and students from foreign countries, describing their problems and achievements; Vance Kirkland, speaking on the influence of modern paintings on broader world understanding; Dr. Florence Sabin, Denver Manager of Public Health, discussing the importance of public health to the community; Dr. Louise Ronnebeck, speaking on art as an Expression of the aesthetic ideals of the times.

On February 18th the meeting will be turned over to the newly initiated students for a night of "Fun and Frolic" planned by them. This is a part of the University of Denver's program for inducting students into the teaching profession.

The historian of Epsilon Kappa chapter, Michigan State College reports: "Our November 2nd meeting at which Dr. Charles P. Loomis lead an informal discussion on "Education in the Atomic Age" was most outstanding. Dr. Loomis used an outline as the basis for discussion. He began by interpreting the data for us. The idea which the outline conveys is that while people recognize the danger of the atom bomb, they are not worried about it. Dr. Loomis believes that worrying is not a good thing, but that a little constructive

worrying about the problem now would be better than a panic if and when more atom bombs are dropped. The question was, then, what could we as teachers and, therefore, leaders in the community do. We did not reach any specific conclusions, but did feel that the meeting was very valuable in that it brought to light a question worthy of our thought and speculation.

"This fall our chapter has decided to award an inscribed pen and pencil set to an outstanding senior selected jointly by the Education faculty and Kappa Delta Pi in education. This will be a yearly presentation."

Last April Gamma Kappa chapter, the University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma, was addressed by Mr. Ware W. Marsden, personnel director of the Tulsa City Schools. In May officers of the chapter were elected. At the June meeting new members initiated were: May Baltz, Anita Baugh, Gibb Byrd, Richard Johnson, James Mitchell, Emil Schellstede, William Mildren, Clifford Boyer, Don Rhobarts, Joseph Young and Bernita Springer. The chapter has noted with interest the growth of Sequoyah chapter of the Future Teachers of America and the founding of Tulsa's first high school chapter at Will Rogers High School. There is splendid cooperation between Kappa Delta Pi and the F.T.A. chapter demonstrating "How a Democracy Works."

Officers of Delta Gamma chapter, as reported since the Directory went to press are: President, John Magerowski, Box 427, Athens, West Virginia; Vice President, Margaret Ann Scott, Box 1440, Athens, West Virginia; Secretary, Joe Harper, Athens, West Virginia; Treasurer, Alice Belcher, Athens Star Route, Princeton, West Virginia; Historian-Re-

porter, Salvatore Miano, Athens, West Virginia; and Counselor, Cloyd P. Armbrister, Athens, West Virginia.

Beta Iota chapter, Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan, the chapter of the Executive President of Kappa Delta Pi, has sent to each chapter of the Society a directory for 1945-49. It also includes the program for the year, and the by-laws of the chapter. It is a laudable project which could well be imitated by others.

Phi chapter, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia, celebrated its Silver Anniversary with a banquet at the Hotel Frederick on June fourth. A hundred were present to hear Dr. Isabella Wilson, the first counselor of the chapter, as the principal speaker on the topic, "Social Responsibility of the Educated Person." Dr. J. B. Shouse, first dean of Marshall College, was also on the program. The "Phi News" published by the chapter is now in its eleventh year. It is a well-printed and well-edited chapter publication.

The "Newsletter" of Gamma Iota chapter, The City College of New York, reports the initiation of twenty-five members on November fifth. The committees are actively at work and accordingly the chapter is prospering. The aim is to have every member a *worker*, not merely a *pin wearer*.

Another "Newsletter" appearing regularly is published by Delta Xi chapter, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey. Excellent programs of the chapter maintain the interest and attendance.

In May an inter-honorary fraternity banquet was held at Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois in which nine organizations, including Kappa Delta Pi cooperated. Dr. Emma Reinhardt is the sponsor of the chapter.

Alpha Alpha chapter, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware has published a very attractive program for the year. The pro-

grams are designed to be of interest to beginners in the profession. A feature is a fitting quotation in connection with the theme of each meeting.

Kappa chapter, Teachers College, Columbia University, initiated 71 new members on November 29th. An address was given by Miss Verna Dieckman, president of the chapter, who along with Dr. Florence Stratemeyer, the counselor of the chapter, recently participated in a survey of the educational system of Puerto Rico conducted by the Teachers College Institute of Field Studies. At the initiation banquet Henry S. Commager, Professor of History at Columbia, spoke on "The English Character as Reflected in English Institutions." The chapter is considering publishing a newsletter.

Xi chapter, University of Alabama, University, Alabama, is cooperating with the new Reading and Study Laboratory, established by the University under the leadership of Dr. Frederick L. Westover, of the Department of Educational Psychology. The chapter has enthusiastically endorsed the project and will supply many of the tutors for the Laboratory as a campus service project.

At the November meeting of Alpha chapter, University of Illinois, Mr. Douglas Ward gave an informal, illustrated address on the people, culture, schools and teachers of Latin America. Mr. Ward recently joined the College of Education faculty after four years spent in teaching in Guatemala and Ecuador.

In Epsilon Chi chapter New York State Teachers College, Cortland, New York, special stress this year is on a rehabilitation project, that of collecting tools, technical books, wood working instruments, etc. for the people of Poland. This project was suggested by Unesco, in Washington, D. C. The chapter has already received a shipment of 100 pounds of tools from a

factory it contacted. It has also had a few responses from alumni of the chapter. The project last year was the collection of books for use in Europe. That project was very successful, and the chapter hopes to have an even greater success this year.

If another chapter of Kappa Delta Pi wishes to start a project such as this, a letter to Unesco will bring a reply with a suggested project.

There has been two distinguished speakers this year, and the chapter hopes to have more at future meetings.

Nemaha Alumni chapter of Kappa Delta Pi has held two initiations since the last report and has added six new names to the chapter roster.

On April tenth, eighteen members assembled at the Colonial Cup in Lincoln, Nebraska for the chapter's second initiation following its installation. Five initiates representative of three institutional chapters were taken into the Alumni chapter. They were Miss Martha Currie of Council Bluffs, Iowa, a former member of Psi; Miss Alma Lois Rodgers of Lincoln, Nebraska, formerly a member of Gamma; Miss Zola Gardner of Humboldt, Nebraska, Miss Hazel Ditloff of Greshaw, Nebraska, and Mrs. Irene Veal Kucera of Ohiowa, Nebraska. The last three were originally initiated into Beta Mu.

Preceding the ceremony a luncheon was served. The tables were appropriately decorated in the Kappa Delta Pi colors of jade green and violet. Corsages of violets were presented to the initiates.

Following the luncheon and initiation, Miss Josephine Shively, president of Nemaha Alumni and a delegate to the Kappa Delta Pi Convocation at Atlantic City, New Jersey gave an interesting report of the activities of the Convocation.

After a short business meeting, the party journeyed to the Shanafelt Puppet House, where Miss Marjorie Shanafelt gave a

most pleasing presentation of her fascinating puppets and an instructive explanation of their construction and manipulation.

Arrangements for the luncheon were in charge of the Lincoln members of Nemaha Alumni, Misses Elva McFie, Miriam McGrew, Hazel Palmer and Elsie M. Rice.

At the business meeting the following officers were elected: counselor, Ernest W. Barker, director of education in Council Bluffs; president, Miss Jennette Hanigan, elementary principal in Council Bluffs; vice-president, Miss Frances Wood of the University of Omaha; secretary-treasurer, Miss Dorothy Maystrick of Omaha; historian-reporter, Miss Josephine Meyer, Washington School, Council Bluffs.

On October seventeenth following a luncheon at the Hotel Chieftain in Council Bluffs, Iowa, another initiation was held.

Miss Marian McBrair, dean of women at Nebraska Wesleyan University in Lincoln was initiated into Kappa Delta Pi and into the Alumni chapter. Miss McBrair is the first initiate into the Alumni chapter who was not previously a member of an institutional chapter.

Members of the Alumni chapter from Omaha and Lincoln, Nebraska and from Glenwood and Council Bluffs, Iowa attended this meeting.

Ernest W. Barker, superintendent of the schools of Pottawattamie county and chapter counselor entertained the group with two musical selections, Russell J. Mouren, superintendent of the schools of Council Bluffs, gave an address on the subject "What We Expect of Education."

Council Bluffs alumni members were in charge of arrangements with Miss Jennette Hanigan, president, presiding.

The dinner-lecture of Kappa Delta Pi is sponsored each year by Delta Beta chapter, Kent State University, in conjunction with the college of education. The purpose is to bring a nationally-known educator to

our campus for consultation with students and faculty.

The Delta Beta chapter is planning to sponsor a chapter of the Future Teachers of America on the Kent State University campus. The members think that it is a worthy project and will help to better teaching standards.

The chapter is planning a college of education social for Kappa Delta Pi members, college of education faculty, department heads, and deans of the colleges. This will take place during the winter quarter.

The chapter sponsors an annual scholarship tea honoring the students of the University who have high scholastic averages.

A summer round-up also is being planned by the chapter for the students from the college of education who come only in the summer.

The Epsilon Omicron chapter, Eau Claire State Teachers College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin, met September 30th in Memorial Hall.

Special significance was given to a beautiful Swiss print of "The Peasants' Dance" by Peter Breughl, which hangs in the living room of Memorial Hall in memory of Pearl Risberg. Pearl Risberg, president of Amphicton, former honorary society in Eau Claire, was instrumental in establishing Kappa Delta Pi on our campus. "The Peasants' Dance," a very colorful and fitting memorial, was purchased with a part of the memorial money contributed by a number of the first members of our chapter of Kappa Delta Pi and by members of Amphicton. Mrs. Lois Austin, a member of the committee who helped establish Epsilon Omicron chapter, was present at this meeting and told us of Pearl Risberg and about the painting and its artist.

Mrs. Lyla Flagler, of our faculty, spoke at this meeting and told of her travels in Europe this summer.

On October 15th, the third annual

alumni breakfast of Epsilon Omicron chapter was held at Hotel Edwards. The breakfast was most successful, 27 being in attendance. Greetings were read from absent members, and President Davies spoke briefly. A short talk was given by Lester Loken, Director of the Teaching of the Blind, his territory covering 16 counties in Northwestern Wisconsin.

Delta Nu chapter, State Teachers College of Whitewater, Wisconsin, held formal initiation ceremonies for sixteen pledges at the Colonial Hotel, Delevan, Wisconsin, on November 23rd. President Carlos Ascher acted as master of ceremonies for the event. Mr. Robert Schacht of the University of Wisconsin was the guest speaker. He discussed the effect membership in this honorary society could have on our lives within the next twenty years. It can be said that his inspiring comments aroused a new personal interest in our rights and duties as students and members of our society.

The October meeting of the Gamma Epsilon chapter, Montclair State Teachers College, New Jersey, was both unusual and interesting. Our vice-president, Doris Platts, and her program committee planned an extremely entertaining evening based on the Halloween theme.

Chapin Hall, the meeting place, was appropriately decorated with skeletons, lanterns and the like to provide a fitting atmosphere for the evening.

The president, Theodore Holt, opened the meeting and then turned it over to Miss Platts who discussed some of the more common superstitions associated with All Hallows Eve. Next on the agenda was a demonstration in scientific magic given by a member, Irwin Gawley. This eerie, supernatural atmosphere was supplemented by card-reading and fortune-telling done by Mae Christianson, also a member.

Refreshments, in keeping with the theme

of the program were cider and doughnuts. This delightful evening came to an end with corn-popping and square-dancing in which all present participated.

The Delta Rho chapter, Newark State Teachers college, Newark, New Jersey, is celebrating its tenth year of existence this year. Having had its beginning in February of 1938, it has gradually grown in size and in prestige to its present place as a distinguished branch of the activities of the college.

Celebration of this important event has been embodied in a two-fold plan. First, on December 14th, the chapter combined the celebration of their tenth anniversary and their formal initiation of recently pledged members at a large banquet..

The speaker of the evening was Roscoe L. West, president of the Trenton State Teachers college, Trenton, New Jersey, who gave his impressions of a conference and workshop in England during the summer of 1948. Also present was a group of former officers each representing one of the chapter's ten years. These made brief informal speeches in which they recalled the Delta Rho chapter of their day.

The second way of commemorating this anniversary is by devoting the activity of the year to a study of juvenile delinquency; the problems it poses and what future teachers may do to combat it. To assist the group in understanding this subject, experts in the field will be invited to speak at the regular meetings, movies will be employed, and visits to various agencies working to alleviate this problem may be planned for the remainder of the college year.

One of the traditions of Phi chapter, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia, has been the "get together breakfast" at the annual meeting of the S.E.A., sponsored by the chapter nearest to the city in which the meeting was held. Last year, when the S.E.A. met in Huntington, Phi

chapter sponsored a very successful breakfast in the Fireside Room of the Frederick Hotel, attended by nearly 100. This year Phi chapter again sponsored the breakfast, during the S.E.A. meeting at Charleston, in the Balcony Room of the Daniel Boone Hotel. We met with many conflicting engagements but, due to the efficient work of a local committee, over 60 attended. Dr. Harry G. Wheat, now affiliated with Alpha Upsilon, but originally Phi, was the speaker of the morning. Taking for his topic, "The Fallacy in Child Study," Dr. Wheat delivered a very stimulating talk.

At a summer meeting of Phi chapter, 21 earnest initiates were received into membership. The guest speaker was Dr. Delmas Miller of the summer school faculty. His subject, "Selective Leadership," was a very timely exposition of the opportunities in education today that challenge leadership. Mr. Shouse, who had been a guest speaker at the twenty-fifth anniversary celebration of Omega chapter, gave an interesting account of his visit to Athens.

And now we have saved the best until the last. Phi chapter celebrated its silver anniversary with a dinner and initiation of eleven new members at the Hotel Frederick on June 4, 1948. Dr. Isabella Chilton Wilson, Founder of Phi chapter, now head of the home economics department at the University of Akron, was the principal speaker. Her subject was "The Social Responsibility of the Educated Person."

Approximately one hundred members and guests attended the dinner and sixty-five attended the initiation which preceded the dinner. Pres. Stewart H. Smith gave a most impressive talk to the initiates. Three charter members were present at the dinner. Letters of regret were read from Dean Ellis H. Rece of Emory University and Dr. F. R. Hamilton of the University of Illinois. Twelve past presidents were in attendance. Every person who had ever been

a counselor of the chapter was present. We had a veritable array of deans, past and present, there being in all six. It is such loyal support as this on the part of members, charter members, past presidents, counselors and deans that makes Phi chapter proud of its past and eager to go on to its future.

Gamma Chi chapter of State Teachers College, Worcester, Massachusetts, initiated the following new members into the chapter on Honor Night, December 18th, 1948: Barbara Looney, Marjorie Anne Carroll, Jean Sullivan, and Madeline Dalton. The speaker of the evening was Mrs. Charles Blackman, a member of Kappa Delta Pi. Tea, following the speaker, was presided over by the wife of the president, Mrs. Eugene Sullivan.

On February 10, Gamma Chi chapter played host at an Open House Tea given in honor of the Senior Class. Faculty and student comment alike indicated a keen appreciation of the gesture and the hope that it might become an annual tradition.

To two of the meetings, the chapter invited underclassmen who are potential members of Kappa Delta Pi. The purpose was to make them more aware of the society and more eager to work in its behalf. The emphasis of the discussion was upon a closer and fuller relationship between those underclassmen who show possibilities and the regular working activities of the group. Several ways of making Gamma Chi a more vital spot in the College and of more professional use to the members were discussed.

The annual banquet of the Gamma Chi chapter was held in the College cafeteria on April 30, 1948. The theme of the table and corsage decorations was the Society colors, jade green and violet. Head table guests were Dr. and Mrs. Aspinwall, President and Mrs. Eugene Sullivan, and Dr. and Mrs. Lawrence Averill. Miss Mary

Lonergan, president of Gamma Chi, gave an enlightening address on the National Convocation at Atlantic City.

Following this address, three new members were added to Gamma Chi chapter: the Misses Dorothy Fancy, Tora Sternlof, and Sylvia Hawley.

The year came to a close by our re-electing Dr. Lawrence Averill as counselor for the following year.

The Gamma Xi chapter, East Stroudsburg State Teachers College (Pennsylvania), met at the Indian Queen Hotel in Stroudsburg on Thursday, November 11th for its Annual Initiation banquet. The banquet and the initiation ceremony were impressively held in candlelight. Doctor James G. Vail, distinguished American scientist, was the guest speaker.

Doctor Vail delivered an excellent message on the relation of Science to the future of mankind and he discussed the personal qualities he believes man needs to make for a lasting world peace. He related how the characters of Mohandas Ghandi, Count Bernadotte, and Rufus Jones—acquaintances of the speakers—serve as sterling examples of his faith in the people of the world. Dr. Vail believes that man's biggest danger is not the atom bomb, but hatred, misunderstanding and fear.

Doctor Vail is an outstanding American chemical technologist. He served as a United Nations representative with Count Bernadotte and as foreign service secretary of the American Friends Service Committee.

Delta Sigma chapter of Lock Haven State Teachers College, Lock Haven Pennsylvania, pledged twenty-four eligible students to membership at the October meeting on Tuesday evening, October 12th. Those pledges showing an active interest in the chapter's activities will be initiated to full membership at the December meeting. The chapter has adopted the pledging sys-

tem for the first time, so that only worthwhile members who show an active interest will enter the Society. This group of twenty-four will be the largest group to enter the chapter at any one time since its beginning in 1938.

Alpha Theta chapter, University of Akron, Ohio, reports the appointment of Dr. Mabel M. Riedinger, Assistant Professor of Education, as counselor. At an October meeting, Howard R. Evans, Dean of the College of Education and former counselor for the chapter, gave an account of his trip to Estes Park, where there was an exchange of ideas among educators at a meeting held there. Plans for programs for ensuing meetings were discussed.

At a November meeting, Mr. J. Sleath McAnlis, Instructor in Mathematics at Barberton High School, spoke on his experience as an exchange teacher to England. Mr. McAnlis also gave his personal impressions of the English as well as those of several other European peoples. A discussion of plans for a Christmas party was held. The membership committee is in the process of screening potential candidates for membership.

Epsilon Eta chapter, Central College of Education, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan, held its first regular meeting of 1948-49 on Wednesday evening, October 27th. Carrying out the themes of comparative education and international understanding the group invited Dr. Philip Reinhardt, elementary educator from Mannheim, Germany, and Mr. Hagen Grosse, student from Bremerhaven, Germany, to speak. Dr. Reinhardt is one of nine German and Austrian educators spending the year in the United States under the sponsorship of the American Association of Colleges of Education and the General Education Board of the Rockefeller Foundation for the purpose of studying American education. The special interest of Dr. Reinhardt is the organization of

the elementary school and the program of training for elementary teachers. He spoke to the chapter on German elementary education and the German University while Mr. Grosse explained the secondary school, its curricula, policies and techniques in the light of his own experiences. The chapter members evidenced vital interest by the many and varied questions which they directed to the two speakers.

The second activity of the year was a tea held Sunday, December 5th from 3:00-5:00 P.M. in Keeler Union Women's Lounge honoring scholarship and honor students.

Miss Lillian Engelman, Miss Frances Martin, Mrs. Ernest Vegter, and Mrs. Melvin Sternhagen poured.

The program consisted of two vocal solos by Miss Edna Artley, accompanied by Miss Shirlee Bloch, and a talk about the history and traditions of Kappa Delta Pi by the counselor, Miss Mary Comstock.

Background music was furnished by Misses Mary Weibel, Shirlee Bloch, and Esther Lauer.

Co-chairman of the tea were Misses Helen Halz and Bonnie Horman.

The fall initiation and banquet was held on Thursday, December 9th. The speaker was Mr. Russell Le Cronier, Superintendent of Mt. Pleasant Public Schools.

The Reporter of Beta Pi chapter reports: "September 29th, Beta Pi chapter at Kalamazoo, had our annual chocolate for honor freshmen. There were about 300 present. On November 6, we entertained our alumni with a Homecoming Coffee. At that time they registered. For American Education week, Beta Iota chapter had an educational display on Kappa Delta Pi's bulletin board. Last evening, December 3, we celebrated our 20th anniversary by our Formal Initiation Banquet. Dr. E. I. F. Williams was present and gave an excellent talk on "Unesco and the Future." Sixty-

two students were initiated into the Beta Iota chapter of Kappa Delta Pi.

Notable addresses have been given by Mr. C. MacDonald, Dr. W. M. Robinson and Dr. E. I. F. Williams. They have enlightened us on various subjects. Mr. MacDonald told us the history and the future of our school, Western Michigan College. Dr. Robinson spoke to us on what Kappa Delta Pi means to us. Dr. Williams spoke on Unesco."

Epsilon Omicron chapter, Kappa Delta Pi, held its initiation May 22nd at Memorial Hall, women's dormitory at Eau Claire State Teachers college (Wisconsin).

Those initiated include Irene Kopp, Beverly Brown, Fred Brown, Earl S. Kjer, and Floyd Krause.

The following were installed as officers in the installation ceremony held after the initiation: Jacquelyn Moen, president; Don Mathison, vice president; Grace Miller, secretary; Peggy Theiler, treasurer; Al Grorud, historian recorder; and Miss Laura Sutherland, counselor.

President W. R. Davies of the college spoke on "Scholarship in Education" at the banquet which followed the initiation and installation.

Beta Pi chapter, New York University, reports the death of three members of the chapter, J. Bowers Emmons, Stanley W. Steele and Mildred W. Townshend.

On November 18, Alpha Chi chapter, Madison College, Harrisonburg, Virginia, initiated 36 new members. The ceremony was beautiful and very impressive—even more so than usual. Towards the end of the ceremony small crysanthemum sprays were given to each new member. After the old members extended the traditional hand of welcome to the initiates, the entire group heard a very interesting talk by Miss Helen Trent, a supervisor at Harrisonburg High School. Miss Trent began her talk with "So you're going to be a teacher!" She

gave us some very helpful hints on teaching which we will all remember for a long, long time and told us about some of the problems that a teacher faces. We learned that a teacher should forget the schoolroom as much as possible when she leaves it for the day. She also told us that a teacher who is entering a new school should overlook the difficulties and handicaps and attempt to adjust herself to the new situation without complaining. Miss Trent made us realize that we will soon be teachers and will have a tremendous responsibility in the shaping of the world in which we live.

At the April meeting Gamma Epsilon chapter, Upper Montclair, New Jersey, voted to install a new system of pledging whereby prospective members were given an opportunity to attend meetings and thus be forewarned of the obligations of a member of Kappa Delta Pi. Thirty-one qualifying Sophomores and Juniors were invited to pledge at this time.

The first item on the agenda for the September meeting was the induction of thirty of these pledges who had fulfilled their pledgship of obligations satisfactorily and maintained their high scholastic standing.

After the ritual and congratulatory handshakes of old members and faculty present, Dr. Sperle, counselor of Gamma Epsilon chapter, gave an interesting talk about her recent trip to Santiago, Chile. She supplemented her address with kodachrome slides she had taken while in South America.

"Do You Know Your Neighbors?" was the topic discussed at the first meeting of Omega chapter, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, held November 9. Several foreign students spoke on student education in their countries.

This discussion was the first in a series of programs built around the theme "Round the World in Education." Meet-

ings of the Omega chapter will be centered on this subject for the coming year. Foreign students will be present at all meetings, two of which will feature demonstrations on recreational activities in the countries represented, and talks on various Christmas customs at the organization's annual Christmas party.

Officers for the year are: Milton Brown, president; Gaynelle Baker, vice president; Margaret Redlin, recording secretary; Betty Stiles, corresponding secretary; Dean Irma Voigt, treasurer; Charlotte Bell, assistant treasurer; Marian Malham, historian-reporter; Ann Mumma, counselor; Dr. T. C. McCracken, honorary counselor.

At a regular meeting of Zeta Alpha chapter, New Jersey State Teachers College, Paterson, New Jersey, the group discussed Unesco and its relation to education. A gift was sent to Unesco. The contribution was used for purchasing supplies for European school children.

Zeta Alpha chapter received an invitation from the Gamma Epsilon chapter, Montclair State Teachers College, New Jersey, to meet with them at their regular chapter meeting in November. A varied musical program was presented by a newly organized club, "Men in Music." An informal social hour followed the program, during which time the two chapters exchanged ideas for programs for the current year.

Dr. Ethel J. Alpenfels, Associate Professor, School of Education, New York University, will speak to the students of Paterson State Teachers College at an assembly program, sponsored by Zeta Alpha chapter, on December 17, 1948. Her topic will be "From Adam to Atom." Dr. Alpenfels, a noted anthropologist, has recently lectured at the New Jersey Teachers' Convention in Atlantic City. She has appeared at many state teachers' conven-

tions and other gatherings of educators. Her work includes research, writing, and speaking in the field of anthropology.

The members of Zeta Alpha chapter will attend the theater in New York City in January to see "Mr. Roberts," starring Henry Fonda.

Methods of social studies and different educational activities in the schools will be discussed at future meetings.

Beta Tau chapter of LaCrosse State Teachers College received eighteen new members in a formal initiation ceremony held at the V.F.W. club rooms November 8th. This was the largest group ever to be taken into this chapter at one time. They are: William Anderson, Robert Atchison, Eugene Bernhardt, Imelda Degenhardt, Robert Novak, Roy Nystrum, Irene O'Neill, Robert Quackenbusch, Gerhardt Robien, Blanche Schneider, Richard Terry, John Thompson, and Marjorie Young.

Three panels were presented by the new members on the topics: "Partition of Palestine," "Possibilities of War with Russia," and "Is there a Teacher Shortage Today?" This was followed by a chicken dinner served country style. E. L. Walters, counselor of the group, and a member of Kappa Delta Pi for 25 years, gave a talk on the meaning of membership.

Five pledges were initiated into Chi chapter, Western State College, Gunnison, Colorado on December 7th. Dr. D. F. Cummins, of the college faculty; and four students, Geraldine Battiste, Betty Herling, Edward Grange, and William Kancilia.

Gamma Tau chapter, State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota, has had two meetings this school term. At the first meeting on October 12th Miss Opal Foster, first grade teacher at Phelps Laboratory school, spoke on her experiences as an exchange teacher at Fife, Scotland. She had found that Scottish children differ fundamentally very little from American chil-

dren. Although up-to-date methods, curriculums, and buildings have been planned by educators, the facilities at the school where Miss Foster taught were inadequate.

At the November 9th meeting talks were by three senior members. David Malcolm, biology major who spoke on the differences between high school teaching and college teaching, said that "one of the problems of the high school teacher is arousing and sustaining interest of the student in the subject, while in college the common goals result in more student and instructor rapport."

The place of foreign languages in the modern curriculum was discussed by Miss Elaine Nienow, who said, "So much time is spent on English literature that the literature of other countries is sometimes neglected." Phonograph records, letters, songs, and games make the study interesting. James Lafky spoke on teaching English. Enjoyment of literature and composition, he said, can be stressed rather than mastery of grammar.

Beta Upsilon chapter at Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, has been active during the past summer under the counselorship of Dr. Frank L. Wright. The following officers are now serving the group: Miss Virginia Wheeling, president; Mr. Don Hayes, vice president; Miss Virginia Harris, secretary; Dr. Stephen C. Gribble, treasurer; and Miss Gertrude Fiehler, recorder.

Pledging itself ". . . to maintain a high degree of professional fellowship among members and to quicken professional growth . . .", the chapter invited members of Phi Delta Kappa and of the student chapter of the National Education Association to the October meeting. Representatives from each group outlined the plans and purposes of the three education societies on the campus. The increased interest created was evidenced by the large group attending the November meeting, at which

time group dynamics for teachers was the subject for demonstration and discussion. Mr. Gus Daly, chairman, had participated in a group dynamics study at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and with the assistance of Dorris Buhrlie, Ruth Cornelius, Virginia Harris, William Hentschel, Don Torr, and Elbridge Mackenzie, gave a vivid and realistic portrayal of a group before and after having become acquainted with the technique of democratic, yet efficient, group action. For further study the spring issue of the "Journal of Social Issues" was recommended. Interested participants in the audience were the invited members of Dr. Charles Lee's class in intergroup education.

As a change from the serious work of the year, the annual Christmas party was held on December 17th with Miss Erna Arndt in charge.

Thirteen students in Education were pledged to Beta Theta chapter, University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho, the latter part of October. J. F. Weltzin, our counselor and Dean of the school of Education, welcomed the group after pledging and pointed out the rapidly improving status of teachers and the need of inviting promising young people into the profession.

As a chapter project, the entire group traveled to Spokane, Washington where under the personal direction of city Superintendent of Schools Shaw, we visited many different schools from the elementary level on up through the high schools. The group was fortunate in being able to observe many of the new types of school buildings and architecture now under construction in that city.

Initiation for the new group of pledges was held in December at the home of Dean Weltzin. Many previously active members were in attendance to congratulate the new members at the impressive ceremony.

Early in January it is planned to have a dinner meeting and to have Dr. Boyd A.

Martin, head of the social science department of the University of Idaho, as the guest speaker.

Iota chapter of Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, chose twenty-five new members at the meeting of November 8th. Of this number ten were seniors and fifteen, juniors.

The annual Kappa Delta Pi scholarship of the Iota chapter was awarded to Stanley Martin, treasurer of the chapter, at the meeting of November 8.

Alpha Gamma chapter, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, cooperating with Phi Delta Kappa, Future Teachers of America, the Graduate Education Club, and the Central Kentucky chapter of Delta Kappa Gamma, served as host at a tea in honor of the University of Kentucky Twenty-Fifth Annual Educational Conference, Friday, October 29th. The tea was held in the Music Room of the Student Union Building. Guests of honor were Miss Sarah G. Blanding, President, Vassar College, Dr. Daniel Prescott, Professor of Education, University of Maryland, and Dr. Everett Ross Clinchey, President, National Conference of Christians and Jews. In the receiving line were the presidents of each of the sponsoring organizations as well as administrative officers of the University.

At the first meeting of the Gamma Alpha chapter, which was held on October 25th, Dr. Homer Howard gave a very interesting talk about his experiences in the

American Occupation Zone in Germany. Dr. Howard is a member of the Education Department of Radford College, and a member of Kappa Delta Pi. During the summer he was a consultant in education in Germany. He visited many German Schools in the American Zone, and brought back from Germany many interesting articles which he showed to the chapter members and their guests.

On November 9th, Gamma Alpha chapter conducted a college assembly program during which 21 students were tapped for membership in Kappa Delta Pi. This was a very beautiful and impressive service during which two members, Miss Mildred Morin and Mrs. Virginia Large Preston, went among the students carrying a Kappa Delta Pi lantern and tapped those chosen for membership. Those tapped were escorted to the stage and presented to the president, Miss Blanche Daniel. Miss Daniel then congratulated each one and placed upon each a laurel wreath which is used because of its significance as a symbol of fame and honor used by the Greeks long ago.

An informal initiation for the 21 tapped was held at the home of Miss Blanche Daniel, president of the chapter, on December 6th. It is the custom of this chapter to have this annual informal initiation at a Christmas party. Everyone had a good time and enjoyed the Christmas decorations and Christmas activities.

TWO LOYAL MEMBERS PASS AWAY

(Continued from page 256f)

member of Alpha chapter. He was greatly beloved by every student and especially by the members of Kappa Delta Pi.

Dr. Karl L. Adams, president of Northern Illinois State Teachers College since 1929, died in his sleep following a heart attack on December 6th. His death came entirely without warning. He was in his

twentieth year at Northern. He was nationally known in the field of education. Few were the national dinners of Kappa Delta Pi in recent years that he and Mrs. Adams did not attend.

The presence of both will be sorely missed in Kappa Delta Pi circles as well as in their institutions.

Chapter Programs

ALPHA CHAPTER

University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

Theme: "Improving Human Relations"

Wednesday, November 3—Dinner Meeting—6:30 P.M., University Women's Club. Speaker: Mr. Douglas Ward. Topic: Would You Like to Teach in Latin America?

Monday, January 10—Initiation and Dinner—6:00 P.M. Women's Town Club. Speaker: Prof. O. H. Mowrer. Topic: Socialization and Neurosis.

Wednesday, March 9—Dinner Meeting—6:30 P.M. University Men's Club. Speaker: Director Phillips Bradley. Topic: Employers and Workers Are People Too—for the Schools.

Monday, May 2—Initiation and Dinner—6:00 P.M. Women's Town Club. Speaker: Prof. Kenneth Benne. Topic: Leaders Are Made, Not Born.

Business Meetings in December and April.

ZETA CHAPTER

University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio

"The Arts—Their Contributions to Life"

Tentative Program 1948-1949.

December 13—Faculty Dining, Music Room—Initiation Banquet. Speaker: Thor Johnson. Remarks: Director of Cincinnati Symphony Orchestra.

January 10—Kindergarten Room Teacher's College. Theme: Drama. Speaker: Freda Locze. Topic: "Romeo and Juliet." Remarks: Teacher of Dramatics and Speech at Walnut Hills High School. Member of Kappa Delta Pi. She is bringing some of her students to put on scenes from the play.

February 14—Drawing Room Teach-

er's College. Theme: Art. Speaker: John Michael. Topic: "Living Art." Remarks: He is an expert art teacher at Fairview and Hoffman Schools. Has his McD. Member of Kappa Delta Pi. He will illustrate his lecture with slides.

March 14—Drawing Room, Teacher's College. Theme: Travel. Speaker: Aria Schawe. Topic: "A Trip to Guatemala." Remarks: She is a travel expert. A member of Kappa Delta Pi. She will show movies along with her lecture.

April 11—Drawing Room, Teacher's College. Theme: Business Meeting. Topic: To elect new Members.

May 9—Faculty Dining Room, Initiation Banquet. Theme: Literature. Speaker: A Cincinnati newspaper man (To be announced later).

IOTA CHAPTER

Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Emporia, Kansas

1st meeting—Information panel on the objectives of Kappa Delta Pi; Planning of the year's meetings.

2nd meeting—Talk by Dr. G. A. Comstock, Student Personnel Director; Tea for scholastically high freshmen.

3rd meeting—Election of new members; Awarding of the chapter's scholarship.

4th meeting—Initiation of new members.

5th meeting—Panel discussion, "Education in My Country," by foreign students on the campus.

6th meeting—Program in charge of newly elected members.

7th meeting—Election of officers; Election of new members; Talk by Dr. John Jacobs, head of the Department of Education.

8th meeting—Initiation of new members; Banquet with Dr. Paul McCleave, President of the College of Emporia, as guest speaker.

KAPPA CHAPTER

*Teachers College, Columbia University,
New York, New York*

October 13—Regular Meeting, 8 p.m. in Grace Dodge Room.

November 18—Initiates Tea, 3-5 p.m. in Grace Dodge Room.

November 29—Initiation Banquet, Place to be announced.

December 9—Regular Meeting, 8 p.m. in Grace Dodge Room.

January 7—Regular Meeting, 8 p.m. in Grace Dodge Room.

February—Joint Honor Society. Meeting, date and speaker to be announced.

March 15—Regular Meeting, 8 p.m. in Grace Dodge Room.

March 23—Initiates Tea, 3-5 p.m. in Grace Dodge Room.

April 4—Spring Initiation.

May 11—Election and Installation.

Dining Rooms A and B at the Cafeteria are reserved for the dinner hour on the second Friday of every month.

PHI CHAPTER

Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia

October 11—At Greenhouse; Indoor Picnic.

November 12—At Charleston; Breakfast at SEA.

December 16—At Dr. Woods; Christmas Party.

January 18—At Dr. Harris's; Initiation: Dean Wilburn, speaker.

February 15—At Laboratory School; "Town Meeting" by initiates.

March 15—At Dr. Wilson's; Prof. Wehler, speaker.

April 19—At Dean Wilburn's; Pres. Smith, speaker.

Early June—At local hotel; Annual Commencement Banquet, with Dr. Harry Heflin, Pres. Glenville State Teachers College, speaker.

CHI CHAPTER

*Western State College, Gunnison,
Colorado*

November 1948—"A Comparison of American and European Universities," Dr. C. A. Helmecke.

December 1948—"Disciplinary Problems," Group discussion.

January 1949—"Aviation in the Elementary Schools," Miss Cora C. Bruns.

February 1949—Panel Discussion, by members of the College Curriculum Committee. Leader, Dr. N. W. Newsom, Chairman.

March 1949—"Iraqian Education," Prince Hussian Al Sader.

April 1949—"The Function of College Degrees," Dr. C. A. Helmecke.

May 1949—Annual Spring Banquet, given in honor of new members.

ALPHA MU CHAPTER

*University of Wyoming, Laramie,
Wyoming*

October 8, 1948—Luncheon—Connor Hotel; Speaker—Dean O. C. Schwiering.

November 11, 1948—"Scholarship on the Campus"—Dean A. L. Keeney.

December 9, 1948—Christmas Party: Hostess—Peggy Hitchcock; Committee in charge.

January 13, 1949—"A Review of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education"—Ruth Hudson.

February 10, 1949—Modern Dance—Mrs. Margaret Mains.

March 10, 1949—Skit—"Interview Techniques—Right and Wrong"—Dr.

George Hollister and others.

April 14, 1949—Foreign Sketches: Mrs. Kari Gudbrandsen, Miss Pritam Tahkt-Singh, Miss I-teh Yang.

May 12, 1949—Banquet; Speaker—Rev. R. H. Clark.

ALPHA PSI CHAPTER

Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio

Monday, October 4—Business Meeting.

*Wednesday, October 6—Mr. Hathaway guest speaker.

Monday, November 1—Business Meeting.

Saturday, November 6—Dinner; Dr. S. H. Wood, Director of Teacher Training in the National Ministry of Education in England, speaker. Initiation of new members and of Dr. Wood as honorary member.

Monday, December 6—Business Meeting.

*Wednesday, December 8—"Educational Organization," Miss Hazel Bauer, guest speaker.

Tuesday, January 4—Business Meeting.

*Wednesday, January 5—"Opportunities in Special Departments."

Monday, February 7—Business Meeting.

*Wednesday, February 9—Guest Speaker.

Wednesday, February 16—Initiation and Annual Banquet.

Monday, March 7—Business Meeting.

*Saturday, March 12—Educational Conference.

Monday, April 4—Business Meeting.

*Wednesday, April 6—"Music and Education."

Monday, May 2—Election and Installation of Officers.

*Wednesday, May 4—"Certification of Teachers," Mr. Bowers, Ohio Department of Education, guest speaker.

* Joint meetings with the Education Club in Rickley Chapel, to be held at 8:00 P.M.

Unless otherwise indicated, Kappa Delta Pi Business Meetings will be held at 7:00 P.M. at Dr. E.I.F. Williams' home.

BETA ZETA CHAPTER

University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho

October—Business Meeting; Pledging.

November—Educational trip to Spokane, Washington. Business Meeting.

December—Formal Initiation.

January—Dinner Meeting; Business Meeting.

February—Pledging; Formal Initiation.

March—Dinner Meeting.

April—Business Meeting.

May—Chapter Picnic.

In addition to the outlined schedule of meetings and events, we have three projects which we are working on.

BETA PHI CHAPTER

Arizona State Teachers College, Tempe, Arizona

Program this year not only includes the traditional pledge parties which consists of an indoor party in the fall and an outdoor breakfast in the spring, followed within a few weeks by formal initiation banquets, but a social feature at each monthly meeting. At our opening meeting this year, which was combined with a wienie roast, we inaugurated the system of a revolving social committee for monthly meetings. Members of the committee designate the successors, which system causes each program to contain the element of suspense.

In November our guest speaker, a former instructor at our school, not only related high points of interest gleaned from her recent trip to Puerto Rico and the Caribbean, but displayed beautiful color movies of these lovely spots.

Because the members were eager to hear the A Cappella Choir from the University of Southern California which was on the campus the night of our December meeting the scheduled social program, a play, was postponed until January.

In the spring our annual Spelling Bee, which is open to all organizations on the campus will be held.

Tentative plans for an educational program include gathering the necessary data to form a counselling program for freshmen. Many of the Beta Phi members felt the lack of guidance in their college careers and believe a real service could be performed. By having each member contribute to this project we also hope to stimulate the interest necessary to build up our chapter.

GAMMA ETA CHAPTER

New Mexico State Teachers College, Silver City, New Mexico

Theme: Education for Every Child.

September 13, 1948—Leader: Miss Cerny; Hosts: Officers.

October 11, 1948—Leader: Mr. Kostenbader; Hosts: Dr. and Mrs. Hunt.

November 8, 1948—Leader: Mr. Harlan; Hosts: Miss Adams, Mr. Kostenbader.

December 13, 1948—Christmas Party:

January 10, 1949—Leader: Mr. Martin; Hosts: Mrs. Bosley, Mr. Harlan.

February 14, 1949—Leader: Students, Daniel Wooden, chairman; Hosts: Students.

March 14, 1949—Leader: Public School Teachers, Miss Tannehill, chairman; Hosts: Public School Teachers.

April 11, 1949—Leader: Miss Adams; Hosts: Mr. Martin, Mrs. Gamblin.

May 9, 1949—Spring Banquet.

GAMMA KAPPA CHAPTER

University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma

September 30—Dinner Meeting in the home of Mrs. Annabell Hendron, secretary-treasurer. Miss Ruth Schaefer, director of Young Adults Division of the Y.W.C.A. presented "Serving the Needs of the Young Adult in the Community."

October 21—Miss Theresa Clayton, an exchange teacher from near London, presented her subject, "Looking At The Brighter Side of Post-War England."

November 18—State Superintendent of Education. Certification at "open house" meeting with F.T.A. members especially invited, speaking at Tyrrell Hall Auditorium at 7. His topic, "Oklahoma's Educational Outlook re: Democracy."

December 16—A Visit with the Sequoyah chapter of F.T.A. a fine example of democratic ideals in membership.

February 17—Dr. James E. Kirkpatrick, will present a film, "Education and Democratic Processes."

March 17—A Faculty member of the Art department will conduct the group on a tour of a modern and contemporary art display at Philbrook, Tulsa's cultural center. "Signs of Democracy as Reflected from the Artists' Modern Paintings of Society Today," is the theme.

April 18—"New Emphasis Upon Democracy," will be presented by a University Faculty Member.

May 18—A member of the Fine Arts Musical Department, will speak upon "Purpose of Music For a Worthy Use of Leisure Time as Conceived under the Democratic Life."

Miss Claudia Robinson, vice president, has been in charge of these arrangements. She is a teacher in the Tulsa City Schools.

GAMMA LAMBDA CHAPTER
*Harrison Teachers College, St. Louis,
Missouri*

Gamma Lambda chapter has decided to hold its meetings on the third Sunday of each month for this year. Our program has been tentatively set up on the following schedule:

December 19—A speaker on "China" to show us films on his native land.

February—This chapter to be co-host, with Washington University's chapter, at a Kappa Delta Pi tea we hope to have during the Association of School Administrators' Convention (here in St. Louis.)

January 16—Initiation of new members.

February 20—An exposition, "The Organ" given by Mr. Hackman, and followed by a short recital on one of St. Louis' finest organs.

March 20—An elementary school teacher speaking on "Better Report Cards."

April 17—A speaker at the St. Louis Art Museum.

May 15—Election of new officers.

At the November meeting, Dr. Frank Wright of Washington University spoke. He pointed out materials which the alert teacher would find helpful in understanding and in helping to solve world problems.

Our October meeting was devoted strictly to lining up activities and to other business for the year.

GAMMA XI CHAPTER
*State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg,
Pennsylvania*

PROGRAM

FIRST SEMESTER 1948-49

September 23—Art Room, Shawnee Lodge 7:15 P.M.; Organization—Appointment of Committees; Report of Mem-

bership Committee; Election of New Members.

October 14—Art Room, Shawnee Lodge, 7:15 P.M.; Panel Discussion; "Are Truman's Attacks on the Eightieth Congress Justified?"; Dr. Ruth L. Kistler, Mr. LeRoy J. Koehler, Dr. Francis B. McGarry, chairman.

October 28—College Auditorium, 7:15 P.M.; Pledge Ceremony; "Our Shining Stars" (A talent program in which the newly pledged members participate).

November 11—Indian Queen Hotel, Stroudsburg, 6:30 P.M.; Dinner Meeting; Introduction of Guests: Edith Shafer, President; Initiation of New Members: Initiation Team.

INITIATES

James Armstrong, Cuba, New York; Anthony Baratta, Martins Greek, Pennsylvania; Marilyn Barr, Allentown, Pennsylvania; Marjorie Bedford, Forksville, Pennsylvania; Inez Bonney, Pen Argyl, Pennsylvania; William Campbell, Springfield, Pennsylvania; William Denton, New Milford, Pennsylvania; Charles Grzeszkiewicz, W. Wyoming, Pennsylvania; Helen Hoffman, Myerstown, Pennsylvania; Norman Johnson, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Robert Klenk, Wildwood, New Jersey; Russell Kropp, Tamaqua, Pennsylvania; Kathleen Mansfield, Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania; Anna Russopulos, Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania.

Address—"The Challenge of Leadership." Guest Speaker, Dr. James G. Vail.

December 16—College Auditorium, 8:30 P.M.; Christmas Program, Phil Heckman, Chairman; Readings, Miss Winona Carey.

GAMMA TAU CHAPTER

*State Teachers College, Winona,
Minnesota*

October 12, 1948—Talk by Miss Opal

Foster, American exchange teacher to Scotland last year.

November 9, 1948—Talk by exchange teacher from England.

December 14, 1948—Talk by two students on their respective major fields.

January 11, 1949—Dr. Fuller, Dean of Winona State Teacher's College will talk on scholarships, fellowships and graduate work.

February 15, 1948—Talk by Mr. Jesse Jestus, Superintendent of Schools for Winona County, Winona, Minnesota.

March 8, 1949—Talk by Mr. R. J. Williams, Principal of Senior High School, on extra-curricular activities.

April 11, 1949—Spring Initiation Banquet; Talk on the Core-curriculum.

May 9, 1949—Talk on school administration or tax-allocation for schools by one of the college faculty.

DELTA BETA CHAPTER

Kent State University, Kent, Ohio

The Delta Beta chapter of Kappa Delta Pi holds monthly meetings on the first Thursday of each month. The program for the year 1948-1949 is as follows:

October 21—Organizational meeting.

November 4—FTA project explained to the group.

November 12—First dinner lecture of the year. Stewart B. Hamblen, Field Consultant for the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, spoke on applied Economics.

December 2—N. C. Fawcett, Assistant Superintendent of the Akron schools, spoke on the beginning teacher.

January 6—Voting on candidates for membership into Kappa Delta Pi will be held.

January 20—Pledging.

February 3—Initiation.

March—Final discussion of the FTA project.

DELTA LAMBDA CHAPTER

Wilson Teachers College, Washington D.C.

October—Dinner meeting with Dr. Clyde M. Huber of Wilson Teachers College speaking on "Mathematics and Civilization," the progress of civilization shown through mathematics.

November—Meeting with Dr. Henry Olsen of Wilson Teachers College giving an informal talk with illustrations of his own pieces of modern art.

December—Annual Christmas tea honoring the senior class of Wilson Teachers College.

January—Meeting with Esther Hansen, a member of our chapter, showing slides of her recent trip through several European countries.

February—Meeting devoted to discussion of the literature of Kappa Delta Pi.

March—Meeting at which Dr. Paul O. Carr of Wilson Teachers College will speak. Subject as yet not announced.

April—Meeting devoted entirely to regular business.

May—Annual banquet and initiation of new members. Speaker as yet not chosen for this event.

DELTA PHI CHAPTER

Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio

Plans are being made to make the tenth year on campus a big year for Kappa Delta Pi at Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio. An interesting program has been planned by the Executive Committee, which met at the home of Counselor Walter A. Zaugg on the 18th of September 1948. It is anticipated that attendance in Delta Phi chapter of Kappa Delta Pi will be the very best this year. The following dates and program have been scheduled with the general

theme, "Making Teaching a Profession":

October 20—"Why I chose to be a Teacher," Informal discussion led by panel.

November 17—"Great Teachers of the Past and Present," Group Presentation.

December 15—"My Most Unforgettable Teacher," Group Presentation.

January 19—"Formal Initiation with Guest Speaker."

February 16 — "Professionalizing Teaching," Group Presentation.

March 16—"Exchange Program."

April 10—"Sunday Afternoon Honors Tea," An Annual Function.

May 11—"Formal Initiation," *Tenth Anniversary Program*.

Studio "B," a large room in the Practical Arts Building on campus, has been secured as a meeting place for this school year and will aid greatly in the presentation of our program.

As a special project for the year we are planning to contact all the graduate members, especially the charter members, by sending them a news letter informing them of our present day activities.

EPSILON KAPPA CHAPTER

*Michigan State College, East Lansing,
Michigan*

Meetings: The first Tuesday of the month at 7:15 P.M. in College House, excepting December 7 and May 3.

October 5—Movie.

Chairman—Becky Chapin.

November 2—Education in the Atomic Age. Dr. C. P. Loomis. Chairman—Carl Brockway.

December 7—Initiation 5:30. Banquet—Christmas Party 6:30. Hunts Food Shop. Chairman—Ruby Allen.

January 11—Kappa Delta Pi Skit.

Chairman—Doris Raymond.

February 1—The College Senior and the Placement Bureau, Dr. C. M. Campbell. Chairman—Charles Campbell.

March 1—To be decided by interests of chapter. Chairman—William Davis.

April 5—To be decided by interests of chapter. Chairman—Joyce Rainey.

May 3—Initiation 5:30. Banquet, 6:30. Chairman—Ralph Moeckel.

May 17—Election and Installation of Officers. Chairman—Evelyn VanSteenburgh.

ZETA BETA CHAPTER

*University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch,
Duluth, Minnesota*

(1947-1948)

Wednesday, December 3, 7:30—Armory, "Marshall Plan." Dean Acheson.

Wednesday, January 7, 7:30—Tweed, "United Nations." Rev. Otto Steele.

Wednesday, January 21, 7:30—Tweed, "Statehood Problems of Hawaii." Mr. Ige.

Sunday, February 1, 4:00—Tweed, Tea to inform the pledges, Betts Roth.

Wednesday, February 11, 6:00—Athletic Club, Initiation Dinner, Dr. Gibson Margaret Rickey, Hostess.

Wednesday, March 3, 7:30—Tweed, Kappa Delta Pi Convention. Delegate, Dr. Ehlers, "The Three R's, and the Three E's."

Wednesday, April 7, 7:30—Tweed, "Boys' Town," Mr. Martin.

Sunday, May 2, 4:00—Tweed, Tea to inform the pledges, Dr. Chamberlin.

Wednesday, May 12, 6:30—Bon Aire or House of Sweden, Initiation Dinner, Willard Hessen, Host.

Friday, June 4, 5:00—Picnic open to guests.

The Art of Religion*

W. ROY HASHINGER

IN ANY consideration given to our subject, we should first be reasonably sure that religion represents a certain area in human experience. 1. Historically, all civilizations have possessed some type or form of religious practice. Regardless of area, race, or nation, we always find worship as a part of organized groups. 2. Psychologically, individuals have found the greatest satisfaction in their lives, and specific direction for their lives in some form of belief, trust, and assurance in and about sacred objects, be they symbols, rituals, ceremonies, or a personal power as represented in the word, God.

This much is said because minority groups in some areas and at various times have not always worshipped. This is true today in spots of our culture at home and abroad. But emphatically, from this we should not arrive at a hasty conclusion that religion is not true or without influence in the growth of civilizations. Thus we can observe that historically and psychologically, everywhere and at all times, some people have recognized the necessity for and participated in religious activity. Religion most certainly comes within the area of human experience.

Another source from which we may derive some confidence in the effectiveness of religion in life, is in religious art. The greatest works in art have had religion for their inspiration. Artistic creativeness indicates the power of religion in the artist. The music which never grows old or stale has as its theme, religious ideals. Sculpture that lives, emerges from the religious motives of the hewers. Poetry, architecture,

literature, painting, or any form of art with lasting quality, a sense of harmony, and esthetic permanence, are derived from the attitude and desire on the part of the creator to depict his spiritual aspirations.

The external forms of art indicate that religion is creative. But there is a difference between religious art and the art of religion. Religious art is the manifestation of the art of religion. The real art is not in the production, but in the producer. It is the motive, the purpose, the ideal which dominates the artist who carves the rock, splashes the canvass, unrolls the music, models the design, or dictates the poetry. Therefore art in reality is internal. Religious art naturally and normally flows from the art of religion.

The creativeness, then, inherent in religion, has produced out of the materials of the universe great and lasting works of harmony and beauty. But what about the human materials? Has religious creativeness produced better human relationships, more harmony in society, and a lasting peace among men? In life's struggle we find too much hatred, greed, injustice, and evil. This naturally raises a very important question. Why has the creativeness inherent in religion produced from the materials of the world such exquisite expressions of perfection, while this same inherent religious creativeness has failed in the development of better human and social relationships? This to my mind is the most profound, pertinent, and persistent problem of the day. This problem is challenging and tough. Inherent in its solution rests the future of our culture. Either we solve it or go the way of other cultures which have lived, died, and been forgotten.

Possibly the best procedure in attacking

* Paper presented at the Annual Initiation Dinner of Alpha Upaion chapter, West Virginia University, March 22, 1948.

this intriguing problem is to attempt to understand the source of human action. If it were possible to place ourselves in an atmosphere of complete open-mindedness and emotional receptiveness, we might arrive at the following basis for our actions. The force, or power which makes life real, interesting, and vital, seems to be what we usually term experience. This is an old word and has many meanings, interpretations, and implications. But regardless of how we describe the word, it represents an actual existing condition, sensitiveness, or feeling which makes an individual aware of himself and his environment. Our assumption is that this experience is the source, foundation, or basis of action. What then we ask is this thing called experience? To me it seems to be composed of two elements or forces. One within man, driving, urging, pushing him. We might call it impulse, instinct, or curiosity. The other, without man—challenging, buffeting, pulling, and intriguing him. We might call this magnetic pulling power, the mystery of the unknown universe. These two forces as the source of experience account for the creativeness of man. Smother the internal driving power of curiosity, and eliminate the eternal pulling power of the mystery of the unknown universe, and the creativeness of man is killed. It is this ever-abiding experience which is at the source of a child's action in destroying a watch to discover the tick, or the scientist's action in discovering how to crack the atom to find its power. The curiosity of the individual and the mystery of the unknown world give life its direction, its purpose, and its creativeness.

Now it so happens that in the expression of this creative experience, this eternal push within and the eternal pull from without, man has established patterns for sustaining, protecting, and directing his activities. One pattern or form in which this experience,

the curiosity and the unknown, has expressed itself is in worship, or an attitude of thankfulness, praise, and appreciation. It is the adoration of a supreme power. God has so constructed the individual and the world that the proper use of the internal curiosity of the individual and the external mysterious unknown of the world, ends in the creative consciousness of the eternal God Himself. Thus experience in a true creative sense forms for man's direction, sustenance, and guidance, the idea of God, supreme and beyond both man and the world, but the source of man's curiosity and the mysterious unknown universe.

Further, it follows that this creative experience which arrives at the consciousness of God, also expresses itself in forms such as the concept of justice, or political society, the concept of survival or economic security, the concept of progress or education. This creative experience of man moulds all the institutions of society. These institutions are in turn the framework of a culture. Thus we live, and move, and have our being within the framework of institutions which in turn are expressions of our creative experience. May I repeat, the internal pushing curiosity of man, and the external pulling power of the mysterious unknown universe, initiative creative experience which is the source of all human action, and human actions result in material forms known as institutions which sustain, direct, and protect man. This gives us a working understanding of ourselves and our world. The foundation, then, of our social institutions, is man's creative experience.

We might ask then what is man's place and how has he fared in this framework of his own creative genius—the social institutions? To paraphrase the words of Jesus, we might say, man is not made for institutions, but institutions are made for man. The proper use of an institution is an art. And art might be defined as that process by

which a thing or person fulfills the purpose for which it, or he has been created. The inherent purpose of man is creativeness, and the purpose of social institutions is to serve as a channel thru which his creativeness may be expressed. This is man's place in the framework of institutions. How has he fared?

Toynbee has used two phrases which describe the success of man in his creations—creative minorities and dominant minorities. Civilizations expand and grow when creative minorities use institutions to serve men, to contribute to the welfare of all. Civilizations disintegrate when dominant minorities use the institutions for advancement of the few at the expense of the many. The creative minorities think, plan, and act for the welfare of all, and the dominant minorities think, plan, and act for the improvement of the few. Creativeness grows as it serves human interest, and dies when it serves particular selfish interests.

He illustrates this thesis by describing the process through which civilizations have come into being, and in fulfilling their purpose of social welfare, expanded; and how they have ultimately disintegrated when social welfare is supplanted by the greed and exploitation of the dominant individuals. Babylon, Rome, Greece, etc., are illustrations of this procedure. With this as a background let us consider our present culture.

First let us draw together our various threads to keep the picture clearly before us. 1. Religion has been a part of all civilizations. 2. Religion has creatively produced objective art of permanent value, but had failed to produce a society of peace and harmony. 3. The source of man's action is experience, which is creative because of two forces, the eternal pushing curiosity within and the external pulling of the mysterious unknown universe without. 4. This creative experience has manifested

itself in social institutions. 5. The art of religion is found in man fulfilling his purpose in the framework of these social institutions. 6. Toynbee's illustration of how man has advanced and regressed in this institutional framework.

Our present culture reveals among many characteristics, six rather definite and clear trends: 1. The importance of science; 2. The centralization of power; 3. The polarising of life; 4. The emphasis on material values; 5. The relative insignificance of man; and 6. The problem of authority. Let us take a quick glance at these conditions.

Science has given us a new world. Its discoveries have revolutionized our thinking about the physical constituency of the earth. It has opened up vast possibilities for progress and the comfort of man. Its method of measuring and analyzing has strengthened man's faith and power in his own ability to reveal the secrets or mysteries of the universe. But with its revelations, it also brings limitations. A knowledge based on observation cannot be a final knowledge and the ability to analyze and synthesize has a tendency to develop unwarranted confidence in the perfectability of man. Science which has been creative because of its recognition of the mysterious unknown now belittles religion because it acknowledges this mystical element in and out of the seeable world. Following out our thesis, when science substitutes the completely exact for the eternal pulling power of the mysterious unknown, it is dangerously near the end of its creativeness.

In the centralization of power we find that applied science has revolutionized the methods of processing the natural resources. Technical engineering, mass production, specialization in organization, have developed large units of production and an abundance of capital. This has a tendency to centralize wealth and the control of economic resources. Monopolies and cartels are

the outcome. This type of industrial structure increases our social and human problems, and control the production, distribution, and price structure for profit rather than for human welfare. It underrates the importance of man and exalts the sanctity of property and money. Here we observe very definite indications of the dominant minority threatening our democratic processes.

The polarizing of life. Our technological procedures in connection with the centralization of power have developed distinct economic interests. These interests organize into trade, professional, and labor groups. Each group centers its life, energy, and creativeness within the group. Organized to protect its economic area, the participants develop a loyalty which is divisive. Thus we are confronted with a host of public relations men, lobbyists, and propagandists who think and act with respect to group loyalties. Channels of communication, the press, radio, and movie are used to further their program. They control public opinion by coloring and making news adapted to their group interests. This divisiveness threatens our educational system. The practice of accepting as an education the many professional skills and achievements in particular and specific areas of our social and economic life has a tendency to support interest groups. One who masters the essentials of engineering, of medicine, of law, is not necessarily fitted to function in the social and human environment. In fact, just the opposite is apt to occur. One so limits himself to one field in our cultural life that he becomes blind to his importance and relationships to other fields. The result is that we have been manufacturing what has been called a race of functional illiterates, individuals who are literate in a professional or business field, and yet illiterate in the social and human fields.

These all lead normally to the emphasis

on material values. The methods and discoveries of science, the centralization of power, and the economic interests as motivating forces stress the importance of material and external things. Economic success is more to be desired than human justice. Money is more valuable than social harmony. Ethical principles are relatively unimportant except as the object of conversation, and then with lifted eyebrow. Spiritual ideals have passed away with the new era of industrial and technological progress.

Our material atmosphere has resulted in the relative insignificance of man. Man has become a tool, a commodity, a form of wealth. His inherent rights are challenged. His spiritual qualities are destroyed in the competitive race. He is just a part of the mass. His dignity is crushed in the heat of the battle for existence. He is known in the abstract, such as men, laborers, engineers, and made to conform to the machine, the program; the organization. From laborer to the executive, it is always—can he produce? Not what is he in his own right, or what are his personal aspirations?

Consequently, we face a society in which authority from the top is the directing force. The democratic principle of authority resting in the consent of the governed is about gone. Free enterprise as an economic policy has only advertising value—a mere slogan to fool the people. The authority of God has been replaced by the authority of law—laws to curb the mass and free the few. The ideal is to conform. The individual who challenges authority in any area of our culture is not welcomed. He bears watching.

The cumulative effect of these factors in our culture is to develop habit patterns which restrain the individual and exalt the crowd or the mass. Mass action is more acceptable than right action—in fact the mass cannot be wrong. So today the trend

is toward smothering that pushing internal curiosity and eliminating the external pulling power of the mysterious unknown, which leaves us without creative experience, and consequently a sick, a very sick society.

The characteristics of our culture not only kill creativeness, but they also use our social institutions of religion, education, and the State to further their aims on the pretense that what strengthens these material objectives benefits all. These trends indicate that the institutions through which man should express his creativeness are now used to crush out the last spark of curiosity and mystery. The result is that religion, the church, and even God must conform to the greedy and selfish aims of man in a material world which has lost its creativeness.

The solution rests in our willingness and courage to recognize that in our curiosity and the mystery of the universe we have the creative instrument, our experience, to reveal God, and to prepare us to use our man-made social and human institutions as channels through which man may attain that purpose for which he was created.

Jesus said, "Seek and ye shall find," indicating that life is an eternal quest. Finding one solution of the mysteriously unknown we should not stop with the feeling that we have arrived, and others must conform to us and ours; rather, each achievement should generate power to seek more and further. Hear these hard words, "Ye must be born again." Theology has limited the word "born" to a relationship with God, but the atmosphere in which Jesus lived and the one in which we live today, suggest that "born" refers to a relationship to man as well as to God. Could He have meant that man needs to be born again psychologically, sociologically, politically, and economically. The art of religion is the process of taking the internal pushing curi-

osity of man and the external pulling mystery of the unknown universe, and building a society in which man may fulfill the purpose for which he was created. Again "I am come that they might have life, and have it more abundantly." And "man does not live by bread alone." Profit, power, possessions, have brought social strife and human misunderstanding. Material things have brought neither economic security nor abundant life. Creative experience demands, craves, and lives on purposes, moral and spiritual adventure, love, justice, faith, and right.

These neglected qualities of our culture are the instruments of a truly abundant life. Man fulfills the purpose for which he is created when the quantities of life are supplanted by the qualities. In the push of internal curiosity and the pull of the external mysterious unknown universe, man experiences the power to break through the limits of science, and the desire to rise above the framework of institutions into the presence of God, and thus finding God, he understands God in his fellowmen.

On the flyleaf of Chapman and Counts' book, "Principles of Education," are the following words:

"Greeting his pupils, the master asked:

What would you learn of me?

And the reply came:

How shall we care for our bodies?

How shall we rear our children?

How shall we work together?

How shall we live with our fellowmen?

How shall we play?

For what ends shall we live?

And the teacher pondered these words, and sorrow was in his heart, for his own learning touched not these things."

"We are all fools
Until we learn
That in the common plan
Nothing is worth the making
If it does not make the man."

A Dialogue on Peace and Civilization

Wandering in the Acropolis a Young Teacher Has a Ghostly Conversation with Socrates

By WILBUR JERGER*

The problem of the dialogue is peace among mankind, and the object is the salvation of civilization. The persons of the dialogue are a Young Teacher—any young teacher of any land—and Socrates, one of the great teachers of all times. The scene is the Ruins of the Acropolis in Athens and the time is the Present.

TEACHER: I'm sorry, I didn't mean to disturb you.

Socrates: Please sit down.

Teacher: Thank you, but haven't we met before?

Socrates: No, I don't think so. My name is Socrates.

Teacher: I thought you took hemlock in 399 B.C.

Socrates: My last mortal discussion was about the immortality of the soul. And I was right. Unlike civilizations which rise, struggle and die, the soul never perishes, and as a kind of eternal gadfly, I watch your earthly struggles. When I get tired, I return to the world below and converse with my friends, among them Alexander who was the pupil of my pupil's pupil, Aristotle; and St. Augustine who borrowed many of Plato's ideas and with them fashioned a Christian theology. There was Karl Marx whose vision of society was somewhat materialistic and narrow, but, nonetheless, he was a very bright fellow. You may recall A. Hitler who recently joined Napoleon, Alexander and Thrasymachus, my old antagonist, who, like them, thought justice was the advantage of the stronger. Franklin Roosevelt and Pericles

became good friends because they had a good deal in common. Henry Ford arrived the other day and I wanted to ask him something about mass production, which I don't understand, but he was in a hurry to visit Adam Smith and I didn't get a chance. But enough of this. Please tell me why you came to see these ruins?

Teacher: Perhaps to remind myself that the United Nations stands alone between Western Civilization and destruction.

Socrates: You recall that Athens and Sparta joined together to repel a common invader, the Persians, but shortly afterwards scrapped their "United Nations" and bled each other to death. This led to the universal Roman state, which, by its totalitarian nature, completed the decline and fall of Hellenic Civilization. These are some of its ruins.

Teacher: And I see the ominous parallel. If Russia and the United States, who fought so gallantly against a common foe, turned against each other, the winner would be forced to set up a universal military state. If neither won, the result would be the same, for another power would step in and our civilization would soon perish. In the event of a number of atomic wars it is conceivable that no civilization would ever rise again.

Socrates: Your great historian, Arnold Toynbee, anticipates other civilizations.

Teacher: You see, I don't know. In Teacher's College we seldom read such wonderful books, including your *Republic*.

Socrates: That was Plato's although he .

* Reprinted from *The Westwood Hills press.*

, most genuine pupil.

Teacher: It seems to me that we should read all the wonderful books of your civilization and mine and not spend so much time on modern books, text books and the scientific method.

Socrates: Would you not include the ideas of the other civilizations which exist today, Orthodox Christian, Islamic, Hindu and Far Eastern?

Teacher: I think I would, but I'm not quite sure why we should study, and teach, the books and ideas of these civilizations, although it sounds very intriguing.

Socrates: How is it possible to achieve a real unity among the United Nations?

Teacher: By common political action, I suppose.

Socrates: And could there be such a common action among nations unless they held certain ideas in common?

Teacher: No.

Socrates: Then common ideas are necessary for common action. And I assume we are talking about good ideas and good actions.

Teacher: Yes.

Socrates: And the United Nations is a step towards the United Civilizations?

Teacher: It certainly should be.

Socrates: Then the ideas of the various civilizations would be the common basis of the United Civilizations and to teach them is the task of the teacher in the United Nations. But first he must learn them himself; which is a very difficult task.

Teacher: You are certainly right, Socrates.

Socrates: Let me get back to your disparaging remark about the scientific method.

Teacher: I think I was a little hasty, but many scientists use their method for the sake of war, not knowing the relation between their research and its social and political consequences.

Socrates: Would you say that another method is needed to show such a relationship?

Teacher: I would, but I don't know what it is.

Socrates: What is the most natural way of communicating?

Teacher: Talking, I guess.

Socrates: But is the art of talking limited to some special concern or may it move freely among many topics as a bird may fly among other birds, or from the sky to some object on the ground?

Teacher: I would say, Socrates, that the art of conversation may engage any topic or idea.

Socrates: And wouldn't out bird be foolish to fly near a huntsman who would endanger its life?

Teacher: It certainly would.

Socrates: Then it would be just as foolish for us to give free flight to conversation when it would harm the community, when false words, or a false flight, might bring injustice or war?

Teacher: I agree.

Socrates: Then there must be some discipline in conversation when it engages a topic or idea, especially when it may prevent the death of a noble civilization. And even before we have a discussion about important things, one of us has to ask good questions, for good questions produce good answers.

Teacher: Yes.

Socrates: Then this method of asking good questions, of engaging in good conversation, and relating important things and ideas thereby, such a discipline in the art of talking and thinking, I call the dialectic.

Teacher: I've heard of this method, Socrates, because it's yours, although we seldom use it. You're speaking of the Socratic method.

Socrates: I would prefer to call it dialectic, and since it is related to the most natural art

of communication, it has more range and power than any other method, for like our bird, it can soar from an object on the ground to those in the sky and back again if it likes. It is mediator between methods and subjects, and the coordinator of both. Like a statesman who directs the political activities of his citizens, the dialectic must reign supreme among all the specialties and other methods, including science and the scientific method. Only if the scientist is also a dialectician will he be able to realize the consequences of his research upon the political community.

Teacher: I can see now why you are the greatest teacher and why you died for your method, the dialectic.

Socrates: And in our University of the United Nations and Civilizations, and other schools, the student should not be stuffed with facts and dogma, as one would stuff a hide: but taught by asking questions about the ideas which have found their way into the many civilizations, dead and alive. And yet we should by no means overlook modern techniques and science, the social studies and specialties and the professions which are very necessary to modern life. But we must not confuse them or their methods with the dialectic and the ideas of civilizations.

Teacher: This would mean that the professors in various academic departments, such as Philosophy, History, Mathematics, Education and so on, would be able to communicate with each other. No longer would they be housed in a modern Tower of Babel for they would have a language and ideas in common.

Socrates: And see what this means, for if there is some hope for the professors there is hope for the United Nations and Civilizations.

Teacher: I would certainly say so, our teacher must have enough to live on to support his family and make a decent home before he is able to assume such a responsibility. He must get more than \$37 a week.

Socrates: This problem is foreign to me because in my day only the sophists received money for teaching, but I see your point for your economy is quite different.

Teacher: And what about adults? Don't you think they should go to school until they die, and read these books, learn the dialectic, or learn by it, and understand the ideas of civilizations, especially Hellenic and its offspring, Western Civilization? They will compose the greatest part of the population of our United World and hence must be disabused of trivial concerns, prejudice and false conversations which might bring havoc upon the general good. Such a one would be like your bird when it flies dangerously close to the huntsman whose gun is aimed in its direction.

Socrates: I'm delighted to see how much you have learned by our conversation, or dialectic, if you will. You have the makings of a great teacher.

Teacher: But you showed me the way.

Socrates: If you don't mind, I shall repeat a statement I made long ago in "my" *Republic*, changing it just a little to fit our pleasant conversation: Until philosophers are teachers, or the teachers of this world have the spirit and power of ideas and dialectic, and teaching ability and wisdom meet in one, and those commoner natures who pursue either to the exclusion of the other are compelled to stand aside, civilizations will never have rest from their evils—no, nor the human race, I believe—and then only will your world have a possibility of life and behold the light of day.

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Behind the By-Lines

Approaches to Peace—The Educator is a timely article by a member of the Laureate chapter, George D. Stoddard, President of the University of Illinois. The paper is slightly modified from one which Dr. Stoddard presented before the University of Chicago and the Chicago Council on Foreign Relations since his recent return from the meeting of the General Conference of Unesco in Beirut, where he was a representative of the United States Government. The final section of the article comprises the answers which Dr. Stoddard gave to questioners at the Chicago conference. It is appropriate that this article is appearing just as the annual conference of the United States National Commission for Unesco is being held in Cleveland.

Educating Teachers for World Peace complements Dr. Stoddard's article. It is by F. E. Engleman, Commissioner of Education of the State of Connecticut. Dr. Engleman is a member of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association.

With this issue we begin a series of articles on the general theme, *Building and Defending American Democracy*. It is hoped that one or more articles on this theme may be published in each of the ensuing issues of this volume, and that others may be published during the next academic year. With the present tense status in world affairs it is appropriate that attention be turned to methods by which the American way of life may be preserved and strengthened. The first in the series is presented by Mark Starr, Educational Director of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, on the subject *The Role of Workers' Education*. He was a member of the

American delegation to set up Unesco in 1945 and a member of President Truman's Commission on Higher Education. He has written many magazine articles, and is the author or co-author of nine books, primarily on the labor movement and education.

Theodore Hsi-En Chen is Professor of Education and Asiatic Studies and Head of the Department of Asiatic Studies of the University of Southern California. Formerly he was Acting President of Eukien Christian University in Foochow, China. Dr. Chen has been at the University of California since 1937 and has had ample opportunity to make observations for his article which has the title *America in the Eyes of Chinese Students*.

Some Evidence of Henry Barnard's Influence in the South is a contribution of Edgar W. Knight, of the University of North Carolina. Dr. Knight, well known for his studies in the history of American education, has in preparation a definitive history of education in the Southern states. This article supplements a group of several previously printed relating to the influence of Horace Mann in the South.

Educational Reconstruction in Land Hesse, Germany was written by H. C. Christofferson at the invitation of the editor. Dr. Christofferson is on leave from Miami University and is now a specialist in secondary education of the military government of Hesse, Germany. Our readers will be glad to have this report direct from Germany, indicating what the purposes and accomplishments of the military government in Germany are.

Some Basic Ideas Underlying the Formation of the Chinese Educational System
(Continued on page 383)

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Approaches to Peace—The Educator

GEORGE D. STODDARD

I

THE WORD "educator" baffles me somewhat. Presumably university presidents are educators, at least at times! Most of us have to do with matters far removed from the classroom. I should like it better, therefore, if in the title, "Approaches to Peace—the Educator," we would think of "Approaches to Peace—the Teacher." If you were to give me a piece of chalk and a blackboard, I would revert easily to the role of classroom teacher that I maintained for 17 years.

Let us ask ourselves, first of all, why teachers or educators have anything to do with the structure of peace. Let us remember, at the same time, that in some states, by law, teachers and educators are compelled to put the problem of peace in their curricula; that is, they are compelled to teach American history. On the whole, I think it is a good compulsion. Now American history is not something that occurs only in the

United States. It occurred in 60 battle fronts where our boys fought not long ago, and it is carried forward in all the nations that have joined together in the United Nations. Thus the teaching of international affairs—of the current events that determine the next historical steps—is traditionally a concern of the American classroom.

Educators (with a capital "E") or philosophers (with a capital "P") have long been professionally interested in peace. In the League of Nations they were gathered in a Committee on Intellectual Cooperation. The list included distinguished names, indeed, under the leadership of Sir Gilbert Murray. They held some excellent sessions; they observed the senatorial rules of courtesy; they performed smoothly as a discussion group; they produced interesting volumes—and they had nothing whatever to do with the maintenance of the peace! I should add that they had nothing whatever to do with the outbreak of

war. Neither side cared whether they met, as far as I know; they were not consulted on major decisions involving their governments.

We are hopeful that one of the errors that teachers and educators may avoid this time is the error of scholasticism—the idea that if you make a speech, you have contributed to the cause of peace; that if you write a book or a 500-page report, then most surely you have contributed. Actually you may have contributed nothing at all *to peace*. Perhaps you were doing what you could have done better in your own classrooms. Hence we ask ourselves, what is it that educators, joined with scientists, cultural leaders and workers in communications hope to do this time that they did not accomplish before? What are the new ideas? What are the new structures? What is the insight that we did not have in 1914 or 1939?

I am writing about UNESCO. I am going to stick to that theme, perhaps exclusively, because it is broad enough. Moreover, I shall emphasize a certain portion of UNESCO—the "E" in UNESCO, which stands for "education," and say very little about the "C" for general culture or the "S" for science.

UNESCO is my theme, and my first point in this: UNESCO has nothing to do with peace in our time if by peace in our time is meant within the next five or ten years. It has no more to do with peace under those conditions than a little sapling you might plant today has to do with furniture in your living room tomorrow. It takes longer than that to get

furniture; it takes longer than that, I think, to get the *furniture of the mind* which is to be our chief weapon in a new-type attack on war. Nevertheless we are not defenseless in the immediate future. We are spending 14 billions of dollars per year on armaments. We ought to get something for our money. We have a United Nations Security Council: we should be getting something out of it in terms of immediate protection. UNESCO, unlike them, is not a fire engine; it is not a first aid station. If we are going to have war in ten years, we can neither blame UNESCO for not stopping it, nor accuse UNESCO of starting it—which would be an equal compliment!

To me UNESCO is more like nutrition. It is the orange juice whose effects will be observable in the growing child. UNESCO is indeed a three-year-old—scarcely able to get attention as yet, but a mighty precocious child when it comes to talking! If we are to get a measure of UNESCO's potentialities, we must be realistic. Only a few people have ever worked on its programs. Most people cannot tell you what the initials stand for. Louise Wright said in San Francisco about a year ago that only one per cent of the people had ever heard of UNESCO, but that remark was based on a poll. I do not know how accurate it was; possibly two per cent had heard of it. In any case, can one per cent of the population name ten leading medical researchers or the ten United States Senators most often found on the side of the people? Never fear, UNESCO will be known when it gets obnoxious—when it

begins to worry dictators and totalitarians. It has yet to be a subject for truly vicious editorials, for censorship, for thought control. UNESCO has yet to get under the skin.

I return then to the idea of UNESCO as a nutritional force. Its effects will be known gradually and, if the program is sound, they will be helpful. It is one thing to say that you cannot tell about nutrition in terms of immediate anatomic change, and quite another to know that you are feeding orange juice rather than sugar water. There is a scientific basis for the use of orange juice and there should be a rational basis for the program of UNESCO, if we are going to use that analogy. If UNESCO is better than the specialized agencies under the League of Nations, we should get our hypotheses in order and test them by agreed-upon criteria.

Having said all this, let me admit modestly, that there are one or two things that UNESCO has done and may continue to do that are more like first aid.

UNESCO, through collaborating institutions and agencies has managed to distribute about 200 millions of dollars in aid to educational reconstruction. Even in these days of astronomical figures, 200 millions of dollars is a tidy sum, particularly when it is recalled that many of these educational goods—pens, pencils, books, paper, food rations and laboratory equipment—were obtained at bargain prices. In many cases, there was no charge for shipment or storage. Also a dollar is “hard money” in devastated countries. Still, that amount of aid is a

small thing in view of world needs, and one might say that other agencies could have handled the matter. I am not sure about that. UNESCO’s special contribution was to find out what children, teachers, and schools needed help most badly, and to make sure that the material arrived at its proper destination. There was not much waste and there was very little overhead.

Similarly, in the immediate past, UNESCO has helped several hundred teachers, scholars and students in various ways. It has helped to resuscitate two or three dozen scientific and cultural organizations with international impact, which otherwise might have been permanently lost. These associations had declined under the pressure of dictatorships or because of the difficulties of international exchange. In some cases, new organizations have been started in order to give strength and encouragement to a new generation of leaders.

II

Now all the above is by way of preamble. If we were to ask UNESCO for a program accounting at this time, we would get it primarily in terms of educational reconstruction, of immediate help to a small group of teachers, students and international organizations, and of a set of *beginnings*. I hope that no one asks for an immediate accounting! The United States bill for armaments is 4,000 times the bill for UNESCO. If one asks for an accounting on armaments once a year, why not wait 40 centuries before asking what UNESCO has done to keep the peace?

A ridiculous question, of course, but it may help somewhat to restore patience.

Now let us take a look at recent events. It is one thing to say that a program is nourishing, or should be, and quite another to establish that we know anything about what is good and what is bad.

One criterion of excellence is that any part of the program should be regarded as a catalytic agent. If it cannot multiply its power, then it is probably not good. A project must be useful and used, but not used up. I am unable to visualize direct appropriations for UNESCO comparable to those for armaments. We do not enjoy taxes—international taxes—to any such extent. It is hard to get appropriations for ideas, once or twice removed from the three-dimensional. As a university president, I find that there are things easier to get than the best professor or the best salary scale.

The stock-in-trade of UNESCO is ideas—a rather dangerous stock-in-trade, and perhaps we need not spend too much money for it if we can hit upon ideas that gather power. Then somebody will pick them up, clothing the spirit with the flesh and blood of changed laws and conditions of men. The numerous organizations that we have been helping may in turn carry ideas into action on a hundred fronts. The national commissions, of which there are now over 30, out of the 44 member states in UNESCO, may become a chain of powerhouses. They are organized within the separate nations on a somewhat autonomous basis. The United States National

Commission is supported by Congressional action and appropriation; it is a legal entity. National commissions and their affiliated organizations offer a comprehensive coverage for any program. Thus a few hundred persons on UNESCO's central staff may set off several thousand persons in the commissions and they in turn may enlist the minds and hearts—and the manhours—of vast populations. This chain reaction is already under way. Labor organizations are represented in UNESCO, as well as teachers' organizations, and scientific organizations by the hundred. It is hard to find anybody outside of Russia who is not at least related to UNESCO—by birth, marriage, or profession, although he may not realize it. Any worker, or spouse of a worker, will have eventually a clear channel to UNESCO. Any citizen seeking peace among nations will be offered, within its framework, an opportunity to render a public service. It is this power to multiply that I place first among the factors indicating, but not guaranteeing, success for UNESCO's projects.

Here is a second one: UNESCO somehow must be more than another university, complete with researches, seminars, publications and extension classes. It must enlist the enthusiasm of its delegates, who are chiefly professors, writers and government workers, but it must draw them away from their classroom, studio and office preoccupations. UNESCO is more than a forum; it is something different from a last resort for men whose "pet projects" have been rejected elsewhere. As a haven

UNESCO is, and always will be, a terrible failure. The whole program of UNESCO should be pointed like a gun—a long-range gun—at the habits, deficiencies and ambitions of governments and peoples that are deemed to be conducive to war. A university does not have this goal as a conscious purpose, however beneficent may be its final effect upon people.

Happily it appears that UNESCO is getting its administrative house in order. It is attracting to its central staff some of the world's best minds. Recently UNESCO held in Beirut its Third General Conference—an orderly meeting with some inspiration toward the end. I think of the 1945 conference in London as a *legal* conference; it set up the constitution, firmly attaching UNESCO to the United Nations while retaining for itself a unique personality. I think of the First General Conference in Paris as a *program* conference. There answers were sought to the fundamental question of how preambles and articles can issue forth as commitments, actions and responsibilities. Peace is wonderful, the delegates said, but how shall we combine thought, feeling and action? *What can we do?*—was the question. The Mexico City conference of 1947, as I look back upon it, becomes the *mass media* program, and therefore a partial failure. Having concentrated on worldwide communication, we did almost nothing to bring it about. Delegation after delegation floundered in a mass of program and budget reform, culminating in a full-dress rehearsal of the ideological differences between the free and

the unfree among member states. I regard Mexico City as a low point in UNESCO's brief history: delegations, working-parties, subcommissions, committees of the Executive Board, and administrative officers moved fruitlessly over the same ground. It is a tribute to UNESCO's constitution—literally and figuratively—and to the Paris groundwork of 1946 that UNESCO took all this in its stride, achieving new strength in Beirut. Following Mexico City, all parties concerned, in a new sobriety, gave the Director-General, Dr. Julian Huxley, almost his first chance to display his very great talents in science and social engineering.

The Beirut general conference of 1948 may come to be regarded as a *business-like* conference. It was well prepared for and well documented. The effect of new staff members in key posts was noticeable. A new Director-General, Dr. Jaime Torres-Bodet, was appointed who is at once a cultural leader and an administrator. He is starting out with enthusiasm. He appears to sense immediately some of the problems that have beset UNESCO.

There will be a small working conference in Paris this Fall. I expect that Torres-Bodet will be cool toward some of the things that are going on, and I am hopeful that he will be warm towards some others. In a limited way, even this working conference may supply something that was lacking in Beirut, namely, an appeal to the dramatic, to the big idea. Mr. George V. Allen, Assistant Secretary of State, Chief of the United States delegation, said it well on

the last day of the Beirut conference in relation to the International Declaration of Human Rights:

Here, then, is a United Nations document which places upon UNESCO and upon its Member States a high responsibility. The Declaration of Human Rights need never have been made, and would never have been made, if those rights were certain and secure for all the peoples of the earth. The fact that it was made, and made with great difficulty, proves how seriously the essential rights of man are now threatened in a desperate, divided world. To secure these rights requires great courage and great imagination, more courage and more imagination than UNESCO has thus far displayed. We cannot avoid the central issues of our time, and certainly dare not compromise our principles in order to stay in safe and shallow seas. Rather we must become what Mr. Torres-Bodet yesterday suggested, namely, a fearless and intelligent spokesman for the conscience of mankind.

The next full-dress conference will be in Florence, Italy. I hope that it becomes the *imaginative* conference. We have had a lot of necessary budget work, much pulling and hauling, many days given over to local public relations. The time has come to put some yeast into the dough that has been kneaded and kneaded for the last three years. It is time for ferment.

III

Let us look now at some of the items on the program.

I can think of nothing easier to make fun of than a UNESCO program—unless it be a university catalog. The professor who is teaching medieval language forms can always have fun with the

sweating devotee of physical education—and vice versa. I know that the program of UNESCO is vulnerable. On occasion I stand off and shoot at it myself, but I want to say a few words now by way of perspective. The main projects are not placed in the program casually; they have had to fight their way against opposition. They earned support while other projects were postponed or voted down. Why, then, did they survive? Why, for example, is UNESCO interested in literacy as a world problem? What does it matter if only half the world can read or write? Perhaps the illiterate half is not the half that starts wars. As Walter Kotschnig says, slaves need no leaders—a not uncommon philosophy of history. A colonial philosophy, still popular with some governments, is: keep the masses poor and ignorant; let their needs be few and their demands ignored; give them as little as possible; let the ruling class rule and ship home what is not needed on the ground.

Well, in UNESCO, we hold that such policies are not conducive to peace; that is all there is to it. We think that telegraph, press, radio and cinema, and the new coverage of fast travel make it dangerous for large groups of people to live in intellectual isolation. We think that ignorance will be exploited. We can show that it is being exploited now in ways that may break up the peace in certain sectors of the world. The charter of UNESCO maintains that ignorance of each other's ways leads to suspicion and hostility among nations. The program in fundamental education, no children's entertainment hour, is at root an

attempt to organize the efforts of all member states in the eradication of illiteracy. Literacy is a considered risk: with it, we may fail; without it, we have not taken the first step toward a world organized on the firm basis of equality.

We know that Germany was literate; we now know that Japan was essentially illiterate, in spite of its patriotic pronouncements to the contrary. It took a war and the occupation of Japan to discover the second point. But literate persons may have cut short their studies. It is not literacy in science that we are primarily interested in, although that is a part of it, if by *science* we mean *free inquiry*. Central to UNESCO's theme is literacy in the social sciences and freedom in the social sciences and humanities—across all barriers by every means of communication. We want persons who are free to ask hard questions of teachers, officials and rulers. We want to set up not simply the physiological conditions of speech, but the social and political operations of speech. We expect, under UNESCO—and it has begun—to teach some hundreds of thousands and eventually some millions of persons, how to read and write about subjects they hardly knew existed—subjects such as history, politics, foreign cultures and world affairs. We regard speech as a vehicle of freedom. In the schools of the United States we have done so naturally, and sometimes by law, although encroachment is an ever-present danger.

Another UNESCO project, one on which I am generally misquoted, is concerned with textbook revision. It was first developed in the Paris meeting, but

was not well received in some quarters. With good staff work, it has been moving along. The first stage is the easy stage; it is the reform of textbook construction among teachers and writers who want to improve. In the United States such groups want to improve relations among the states, or between this nation and Mexico. When security is established, local pride and hurt feelings are less rampant. The Civil War is almost over and the War Between the States can be treated with objectivity and with compassion for both sides. In the Southwest the old border wounds are being healed. The schoolboy's outlook, as developed in books and visual aids, and through new teacher attitudes, has had something to do with this improvement. However, there are still textbooks in the United States that need an external UNESCO review to see whether or not they stir up racial hatreds. We are not spotless, but we are sensitive to the issues.

As we look at the textbooks that the Germans or the Japanese used, we get a retroactive shock! It is hard to get accustomed to pre-war geography books in three colors showing little Japanese flags running down into the Philippines and Australia, and into California and Alaska. That is where they were, and the school children of Japan—18 millions of them—were taught that the Japanese destiny followed the flags. No questions were asked; no counter ideas were permitted. Henceforth when we think of the textbook, let us think of something far beyond the paraphernalia of the classroom. The evidence indicates

that when dictators get started, they take a nasty look at teachers and textbooks. They seek control over ideas. They harass the pulpit, the stage, the newspaper. They know that words and deeds alternate to form a crescendo of crises that bring on war, and war is what they want.

Dangerous as the piling up of hatred may become in teaching, UNESCO does not advocate any form of textbook censorship. The work of revision goes on voluntarily. Nobody tells any publisher, school system or nation what to put in or to keep out. If the UNESCO group discovers viciously false statements in a textbook, leading to the building up of aggressive attitudes, then a commission may report its opinion to UNESCO. UNESCO, in turn, may make a report to the United Nations. Prior to such an outcome, the commission will do what it can to reduce the tension. Any nation that holds itself responsible for the teaching in the classroom (as the United States does not) should be willing to have its record scrutinized. Under the American plan, local school boards or state authorities have the final word. They cannot commit the whole nation to a single pattern, good or bad. The totalitarian state is at the other pole, and it should not be permitted to assume a role of innocence.

IV

Now let us ask a few critical questions about UNESCO. The League of Nations failed, and UNESCO will fail, along with all the other specialized agencies and the parent United Nations

structure, unless it avoids certain pitfalls.

I should like to read a statement of a friend of mine, a distinguished educator, who believes that UNESCO has already fallen by the wayside. I refer to an article in *New York State Education* for January, 1949, by Dean William F. Russell of Teachers' College, Columbia. He says:

Now why is it that UNESCO still attacks in the old, and in my judgment, the wrong directions? My guess is that is all that an organization of governments can do. You see UNESCO is nothing but the joint working of forty-four governments. In each of these governments delegates are appointed and must report either to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs or the Ministry of Education. These ministries, either or both, are generally headed by politicians, who represent the will of a political party, or of a coalition of political parties. It is these men who appoint the delegates to UNESCO, who approve projects and budgets, who determine policy. Thus study of the Hylean Amazon, or teaching illiterates in Haiti, or working on international zoological nomenclature, or facilitating widespread knowledge of painting will step on nobody's political toes; and interchanging students, writing new textbooks, and teaching international understanding interfere with no local political problems. But to diminish the power of a central ministry of education; or to introduce teaching procedures to encourage variation; or to eliminate exceptional educational opportunities for the privileged; or to delegate power to the parent; or to establish the free teacher in his free association; or in some cases to enter into the problem of religion, is likely to go against the immediate interests of politicians in power. That is why UNESCO at best can do only a part of the task of utilizing education to its maximum in the interests of peace.

That is a strange warning! The things that Russell says that UNESCO would be afraid to do, it happens to be doing! True, it is also doing some things that he regards as unimportant. I shall come back to this point.

Next, Russell compares UNESCO to the World Organization of the Teaching Profession. As far as I know, the WOTP is an excellent organization, and I am in favor of it. What are they doing in this organization? He tells us:

We are working, association by association, down a three point practical program: (1) international exchange of information on problems confronting the teacher; (2) exchange of information between teachers associations on the association level; and (3) analysis of the problem of education for peace and programs of action in our various countries to conform. Under the first we began in London last summer to study the following problems: international auxiliary language, teaching illiterates, health education, interchange of teachers and pupils, and the use of current events in teaching modern problems.

As a matter of fact, UNESCO began some of these enterprises after the Paris conference in 1946. I have mentioned the teaching of illiterates. We have a program in health education co-operatively with WHO. At the Beirut sessions, and previously in the United States National Commission in Boston, the question of an international auxiliary language was discussed and set up for study by UNESCO. The interchange of teachers and pupils is already taking place and the use of current events has been a leading topic in several teachers' seminars under UNESCO. In other

words, Russell's favored program resembles the work of UNESCO; I trust that the WOTP will not abandon it on that account! As I have said, UNESCO itself can never do the work of the world.

Now what does Russell regard as ineffective? The study of the Hylean Amazon. That project alone is worthy of a full-scale report to the public. In Boston Dr. Harold Urey offered to go out and defend it against all comers! UNESCO puts in \$55,000 and eight South American countries are contributing \$500,000. Even if they should not succeed in opening these great jungle regions to agricultural production, they are already succeeding in restoring the place of science among the cooperating nations. They are arousing the interest of young men in geology and biology, in hydraulics and food production. They are developing a new frontier that may help to rescue people from physical impoverishment and mental apathy. Up to now, where nothing grows naturally, as in the desert, we are successful in producing lush crops; where everything grows jungle wild, and one gets two or three crops a year, we throw up our hands and say, "The jungle is useless as a source of food." We used to cry, "Food will win the war!" Could it not be at least one factor in preserving the peace?

In Germany where it is co-operating, and in Japan where UNESCO now has a formal agreement with the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers (SCAP), UNESCO holds stoutly to the principle of local and regional edu-

tional authority. We may be sure that the recently appointed UNESCO Mission to the Philippines, under the chairmanship of Professor Floyd Reeves, will hold to the same principles. Nevertheless we may yet stumble and we need the watchful eye of Russell and his associates.

What are some other pitfalls? One that is before us now is this: How can UNESCO keep free from government control, even though it is a creature of governments? Russell is right in regarding this as a hazard. How can an agency operate freely when its delegates are appointed by state departments or foreign offices? How can such an agency really examine the tensions that precede wars? Why is it that the most "enlightened" nations, at least the most literate and scientific, as in the case of Germany, seem to be the greatest offenders? Is it likely that devotion to the humanities and the social sciences would have resulted in more peaceful ways?

To take the hypothetical question first, I should say that, while the education of Germany was indeed efficient, it was, nevertheless, defective. Neither Prussians nor Nazis allowed persons to think freely along social, political or historical lines, as they were allowed to think in science or technology. An enormous field of human inquiry was either blocked off or presented in distortion. Everywhere we face that problem today, except that physics also has entered the area of taboo. We are not sure that, under such conditions, we shall make new discoveries in atomic theory. In the past government has let the scientists alone. They have proceeded to carry on

original work and they have voluntarily applied rules of security. Government control, thus far, has taken over only at the technological or engineering levels of large-scale production; it never did excite the genius. One may say, "It's just as well—atomic energy will bring on war." We cannot be sure of that. Unlimited power, in the right place—in the Security Council of the United Nations—may be the power that we need. It may become the supreme power to enforce peace.

In any case, I think that the Americans in UNESCO, like some others, do not work under a governmental blight. Errors in my logic today are strictly a product of my own deficiencies and not related to anything that I have been told by the State Department! UNESCO policies are freely discussed in the United States National Commission and the delegation usually backs up the Commission's proposals. However, I could name three or four member states in UNESCO whose delegates and members on the Executive Board appear to have very little freedom of action. A hopeful thing about UNESCO is the scorn with which mouthpiece delegates are treated. In Mexico City everybody knew that the Polish delegate could only repeat *ad nauseam* his irrational arguments. In Beirut everybody knew that the Czech was repudiated by his government for daring to vote his opinions. He remained a member of the Executive Board without national recognition. He is not going back to Czechoslovakia; he has no visa to enter his own country. He has become an employee of UNESCO; perhaps the first one owing

allegiance only to an international body.

Russia is not a member of UNESCO although the way is open. It is the way given in UNESCO's constitution. It implies the right to criticize and report; the right to travel freely; the right to use the means of mass communication across national borders. The satellite countries that are in UNESCO were somewhat independent when they joined; perhaps they stay in as listening posts. We, in turn, are glad to have them in UNESCO. We think we have some things for them to listen to; we believe that there are still friendly groups in these countries that will represent the ideals of UNESCO. Perhaps we can give them courage.

It may be that the scientific and educational men who speak up in UNESCO will embarrass some nations. As long as they are true to the UNESCO Charter, they need not embarrass themselves or their colleagues. We can tell when UNESCO is beginning to be effective; somebody, at first in a totalitarian state, will complain violently that it is poisoning the minds of youth. The most hopeful thing that could happen to UNESCO would be to get into that type of ideological conflict.

If UNESCO is ever to fight, it must fight on the side of freedom; otherwise, it will come to a quick unholy end.

A wrong choice is the real danger, and it springs from within. No program, however excellent in detail, will survive a cynical, opportunistic choice on the part of UNESCO's leaders. No program, however halting in execution, is wholly lost if it is infused with the classic idealism of UNESCO. Dictators

who fear words and books, shutting their people off from external communication, will find small comfort in UNESCO, for UNESCO, a creature of governments, will talk back to its creators, and, in time, with massive effect.

V

Questions and Answers

QUESTION: Why is it that the best-educated nations start wars? What is the relationship between education and war, when you look at the political programs of Germany and Japan?

MR. STODDARD: I think some of the leaders in the German Republic were among the best educated. I knew a few of them personally. They came over here in the field of education and psychology. Later, some of them, most of the Gestalt psychologists, came over and stayed—men like Wertheimer, Koffka, Köhler and Lewin. In Germany they were allowed to live and be free, and, in a sense, to be educated—only as long as they stayed in a restricted area of thought.

In other words, what is a well-educated nation? As I said, Japan was really an illiterate nation. The Japanese were not allowed to think freely. Regardless of mastery of the superficial tools of thought, as in spelling or pronunciation, or the copying of words or ideograms, I do not believe you are intelligent if you obey when somebody says (a) You can't think that way; (b) You can't think now; and (c) You can't think in those areas. We should re-define what we mean by the term, *educated nation*.

QUESTION: In the definition of

the term "UNESCO," would it not be a better and a valuable aid if the term "UNESCO" was broadcast to the world—through to the man of the street? You ask the ordinary man what UNESCO means, and he says, "What race does it run in?" It sounds like a horse. He doesn't know. It hasn't been explained. So, I would think that if the educated people, and the institutions, would explain it to the layman through different channels and mediums, maybe it would take hold, and more people would be behind it, and for it.

MR. STODDARD: I agree, but I think it takes time. One of the projects of UNESCO is to give a world-wide coverage to the new United Nations pronouncement on freedom. It will do that through books, radio, and teachers. I suppose that the man in the street did not know the meaning of the word "Nazi" until it was too late. I do not worry much about the actual term itself. If we can assure the man in the street that there is a group of persons who can represent him if he is a teacher or has a child in school, or is a laboring man and belongs to an organization, his interest may be aroused. And by the way, we amateurs in UNESCO do not like to have the finger pointed at us exclusively! We are busy people. You are in UNESCO, too. The United States is a member by law. It has a national commission of one hundred, representing thousands of organizations. My feeling is that you are all in UNESCO through your American citizenship and your membership in various vocational, professional, civic and educational organizations. It is a part of *everybody's* busi-

ness to make sure that people finally do get to know UNESCO.

QUESTION: Is there some way that we can get help in our professional magazines, so we will know what the textbooks are when we are ordering our textbooks for the next year?

MR. STODDARD: Yes, there will be; there are volumes being prepared now. The National Education Association will be a good reference place, or you can send your questions to UNESCO in Paris. There will be available aids to teachers and reports on the seminars for teachers.

QUESTION: In which sense did you mean the Japanese were illiterate? Was their claim of 95 per cent literacy incorrect?

MR. STODDARD: The claim that the Japanese were literate in the ordinary sense of the word was false. There were 2,400 ideograms in common usage; they taught 1,200 ideograms in school—in a six-year program. Eighty per cent of the children did not go beyond the sixth year. The average pupil leaving school knew about 600 ideograms. In a newspaper, he knew about every fourth word. We should not call that literacy, but they did, as a matter of national pride. I suppose that when a child learned one character, he was, in a sense, literate!

QUESTION: May I ask whether those criticizing UNESCO as only governments have any practical plan for having it organized in any other way?

MR. STODDARD: As I see it, it cannot be organized in any other way at the top, for it would become a huge debating society. Money is needed—and

visas. Generally it is not so confining to be a representative of both education and government. I am, all the time, as president of a state university. It never occurs to me that the State of Illinois is bearing down on me.

QUESTION: I think UNESCO is very wonderful, although I am a little disturbed—and I would like to have your thought on the ultimate relationship of UNESCO to the Russian satellites.

MR. STODDARD: In the case of the satellite nations I think we shall get into trouble; I think they will regard UNESCO as a subversive organization. For instance, we are trying to set up a comprehensive radio program. William Benton spent months trying to drive through a tremendous radio program which UNESCO or the United Nations would use. He wanted a world spark that would get behind the barriers. But we shall have to work into it gradually, starting with the removal of physical and statutory obstacles. We must make listening easier and less dangerous.

The question is, how is UNESCO going to cross the bridge between the

western nations and Soviet Russia? Let us enlarge the question—how are we all going to cross that bridge? How can UNESCO help? UNESCO is holding firmly to its constitution, which says in effect: "We don't want to cross it if we have to give up this Charter; we shall stay where we are." If conditions get worse, perhaps UNESCO and a few other agencies will at least give us a better ideological position than we have ever had before. General Omar N. Bradley said in Chicago about a year ago that one of the troubles with the soldiers under his command was that they did not know what they were fighting for. The Army had to do the work of the schools.

The fight between freedom and lack of freedom cannot be met, as I see it, by giving ground on our side, war or no war. I do not favor peace at any price, and I have said nothing about a reduction in armaments. We must keep armed until these growing structures that contain our hopes can show the necessary strength, so that they may keep the peace as it is kept now in friendly neighborhoods.

The citizens of the United States of America have a right to applaud themselves for having given to mankind examples of an enlarged and liberal policy; a policy worthy of imitation. All alike possess liberty of conscience and immunities of citizenship. It is now no more that toleration is spoken of, as if it was by the indulgence of one class of people, that another enjoyed the exercise of their inherent natural rights. For happily the Government of the United States, which gives to bigotry no sanction, to persecution no assistance, requires only that they who live under its protection, should demean themselves as good citizens, in giving it on all occasions their effectual support.—GEORGE WASHINGTON

June

HARRY TRUMBULL SUTTON

Clovers red and clovers white,
Where the bumblebees alight,
Climb about with clumsy feet,
Fall and then the climb repeat;
Or poising on their buzzing wings
Drink from the tiny hidden springs,
Have done, arise, with sleepy drone
Make for their unseen nest alone.

Sir Dickcissel from his wayside weed
Proclaims his joyous throated creed:
"No matter now how fierce the sun,
I'm happy with my duties done.
My little ones? Have all been fed
In their cozy, rounded bed.
And I must sing the songs which start
From my over-happy heart."

Through the pasture on a day,
Comes a farmer making hay;
His sickle sharper than its sound
Brings red clovers to the ground;
The streaming sun and wind soon yield
The odors of a new mown field.
And there at evening hear, oh hark!
The clamor of the meadowlark.

Educating Teachers for World Peace

F. E. ENGLEMAN

I

MORE than three years ago we brought to a victorious close the most devastating of all wars. Never before were so many people in so many parts of the globe engaged in such ruthless enterprises aimed at destroying mankind. Never before were civilians subjected to the same dangers as were men under arms. Never before were so many conquered by so few. In consequence, men have learned that there is no wholly safe place on the face of the earth.

Immediately following the attack on Pearl Harbor, our people united in a determined effort to destroy the enemy. Universal enthusiasm for a great cause was instantaneous. Destroy fascism to preserve democracy!—became our battle cry. Differences disappeared. Housewife, farmer, manufacturer, professional laborer, man in uniform, teacher, and child, united with common faith in a cause, the soundness and significance of which no American doubted. This spirit of unity dispelled conflicts of opinion, and brought mutual confidence, respect, and admiration among citizens. Cooperation and mutual assistance throughout our land were revitalized by the acceptance of one common cause.

This spirit of universal cooperation was extended to embrace all our allies. The principles of the Atlantic Charter, drawn up in a sheltered harbor in Newfoundland, served as a basis for gaining

the support of many millions not actively in the war. In this spirit of unity, even while the war was still in progress, nations from the four corners of the earth met in San Francisco to draw up a plan for international government.

When it became apparent that the great cause was to be won in a relatively short time, doubts arose which jeopardized this spirit of unity. Events at the European Peace Conference suggested that the unity among the allies was weakening. New boundaries and new political controls raised questions to test the friendships of Russia, Britain, France, and the United States. When VJ Day arrived, instead of a joy and an enthusiasm arising out of the solution of our greatest problem, there settled over America an atmosphere of ominous doubt. The faith that had seen us through the rigors of war seemed now to be supplanted by doubt, fear, and lack of confidence in the future. The problems which war had created presented more difficulties than winning the war itself. Confidence and faith in each other and belief in the future seemed to enter a twilight zone.

Foreign policies became inconsistent and ineffectual; inflation was upon us; threats and fears of unemployment filled the press; labor and management fought bitterly; pessimism prevailed regarding the control of atomic energy; neighbors began to question each other's motives; half truths were spoken and believed. In

short, man seemed to lose confidence in his own ability to control himself and the things he had created. The belief in the brotherhood of man no longer seemed dominant.

With the end of the war came a great deal of industrial strife, growing hatred, cruel intolerance, and increasing international distrust. Hopelessness, pessimism, and fear have crowded out optimism and faith in the future. Hatred, hunger, ignorance and personal ambition fan the unquenchable flames of war which man has not the power to extinguish once in full flame.

In this negative atmosphere encircling the national and international mind, we are faced with the democratic demand for educating teachers for world peace. It is not assumed that by world peace one means the end of controversy in ideals, purposes, and values. If man and the world are to continue their evolutionary and sometimes revolutionary developments, then the need for readjustment becomes an ever-present and continuous need. If man succumbs to obstacles in the pathway of world citizenship, in fact, if he reaches a stage where he will not strive and sacrifice in his effort to attain certain values, then his doom is sealed. On the other hand, it is assumed that economic and political differences, conflicts of national interests, ancient prejudices and hatreds, religious and racial intolerances, cultural antitheses, dissimilarity of moral concepts, divergence of social customs and dress, and variations as to belief in what constitutes the good life may be reconciled without recourse to armed might. In short, man

can and must find substitutes for war.

Long before the tragedy of Hiroshima, informed and intelligent men knew that science had given man the means of committing race suicide. Now, all mankind should know that another war—an atomic war—will in all likelihood, destroy our civilization. Non-thinking men, however, seem to be present in considerable numbers, at home and abroad. These men must not be allowed to hurl the world into darkness. Time is short. The rapidity with which all thinking people work is important.

II

There seem to be two clear phases of the problem. The first involves a short-time plan which will leash the dogs of war, although not emasculating them. We must find ways and means of tentatively removing areas of extreme danger; we must make special efforts to reach international compromise, to seek realignment of the balance of power and to assure our strength in military powers of destruction. However, this does not necessarily imply compulsory military training. Above all else, we must argue, plead, and support the cause of the United Nations. As a nation, we cannot be effective agents for peace at the present moment except as we have strength which is recognized by others. All this is a problem for the adults of this immediate generation—here, now and today. To delay one moment is to invite disaster.

Careful and intensive thinking should be devoted to ways and means and fundamental policies. These ideas

should be passed on to our national leaders. More than this, our strength should be mobilized to replace those leaders who are ignorant and prejudiced with broad-minded, widely trained persons. Those who represent the selfish interests of small groups, whether they be racial, financial, religious, political or others, have no place in making decisions which may lead to war. We should demand to know the qualifications of those having dealings on the international scene, and the reasons for their appointment to represent the nation.

Evidence of the past would warn against education for disarmament in our nation while the remainder of the world continues to emphasize military might. This course was pursued by England following World War I with almost disastrous results. America to a large measure did the same thing. What seems to be a contradiction, namely, that we can at the same time have national education and international education, can be reconciled if the two are developed together, the larger growing out of the smaller. I. L. Kandel writing in the book *Approaches to World Peace* puts it this way:

"Just as true nationalism or patriotism is impossible without individual self-realization, without loyalty to self, to one's family, and to the various groups that exist for associated living, so international understanding and co-operation cannot be attained without loyalty to one's own nation, based not on her armed strength but on an appreciation of her resources and her potential contributions to the progress of mankind. Local and national loyalty can be interpreted only as a sense of obligation to serve one's fellow citizens; world citizenship can

and should go beyond this to a sense of obligation to serve humanity. Nations, so far as one can foresee at present, will continue to exist as essential groupings of mankind, and education will continue to be rooted in national culture. But just as soon as the concept of national culture is examined, it becomes evident that no national culture is autochthonous and that every national culture owes its existence to the contributions that men of all ages, races, and creeds have made to the totality of human culture."¹

The second phase of the problem calls for a long-range plan to prevent war. This may take a half century, if that much time remains. It may take that much time to prepare psychologically the many nationalist groups for world citizenship. We are reminded of the period in our own history when there was much dissension among the colonies regarding their individual rights. For example, many Virginians and many New Yorkers loved their independent colonies more than they did the proposed United States. Oliver Ellsworth said, "Union is necessary to preserve commutative justice between the states. If divided, what is to hinder the larger states from oppressing the small? What is to defend us (the state of Connecticut) from the ambition and rapacity of New York, when she has spread over that vast territory which she claims and holds? Do we not already see in her the seeds of an overbearing ambition? On our other side there is a large and powerful

¹ Conference on Science, Philosophy and Religion in their Relation to the Democratic Way of Life, Inc. *Approaches to World Peace*. Fourth Symposium. Edited by Bryson, Lyman, et al. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1944. p. 335.

state. Have we not already begun to be tributaries?"

If man can succeed in averting war for a relatively short period, he may collect his senses, examine his congested, interdependent and rapidly changing world, and experiment with many ways of resolving conflict, real or imagined. Man has never been forced to do this at any previous time. In fact, until now, it never has been his number one problem. Today it has top priority.

Let us now consider the place of the teacher in this colossal undertaking. No better words to describe the teacher's responsibility can be found than those expressed by President Truman's Commission on Higher Education, "As the preamble to Unesco states, wars are made in the minds of men; there too must the instruments of peace and world organization be forged. A major responsibility of higher education is to qualify youth and adults, at the highest level of their capacities, for participating in a truly global society." Education is not the only medium by which man can save himself, but all media must use educational means. Without education, the task seems hopeless.

III

The teachers colleges and schools of education in order to meet the challenge must re-examine their objectives and re-focus their emphases. The leadership of these institutions should set the stage for broad faculty discussion, study, and planning for the development of an adequate program. Some of the following areas of understanding and appreciation un-

doubtedly will have the limelight.

First of all, teachers should have a basic understanding of the tragedies, horrors and utter devastation of modern war. As far as possible, first-hand observation of the results of modern explosives and the uncanny skill in the handling of destructive instruments should be observed by student teachers. They should have vicarious experiences of the most vivid and realistic sort such as offered by moving pictures of devastated areas and such books as *Hiroshima* by John R. Hersey. Understanding akin to downright fear of the abyss over which we hang and into which war will fling us should be foremost in the education of teachers if they are to play a part in the abolition of wars.

As part of his education for peace, the teacher should have a thorough knowledge of the underlying reasons for wars. Often these are glossed over by the average historian and superficial explanations are given for military conflict. If the issues underlying wars are laid bare, the students can recognize them more readily in the contemporary scene. He will then be able to separate subterfuge from reality, to uncover the ballyhoo of the charlatan war monger, and to determine for himself the powder kegs of danger. If all the people knew all the facts and conditions about which there is international controversy, wars would always be slower in coming and probably could be averted. History, the story of the past, if studied to throw light on the present, would prove helpful.

Not only should teacher education in-

clude enlightenment on the real reasons why nations have fought, but it should explain thoroughly how serious disagreements between peoples have been resolved without recourse to arms. Differences between countries in many instances have been resolved peacefully. These examples should be known by all teachers and the ways and means should be studied. Other possible means need to be studied and analyzed. Certainly, the whole structure of the United Nations, with possible variations, should be thoroughly explored. Some procedures have been effective under some situations; others have worked well under different conditions. An inventory of effective ways and means previously used should be known. It is high time the world tried old ways and invented new ones. The American people have experimented successfully, with the exception of the Civil War period, in the area of amicably resolving differences between cities, counties, and states. The American people know by experience that change can be brought about without resort to bloodshed. They know that major social, economic and political issues can be resolved by means other than force. This concept must be established in the minds of men elsewhere. Let us not forget that such an idea will be novel to millions of men.

If teachers are to exert intelligent leadership toward international understanding, which is the foundation for permanent peace, they must know and appreciate the contemporary world scene; physical and human geography, population groupings and historical ori-

gins, national and political groupings, religious and racial characteristics, products and natural resources, economics, philosophies, traditions, ideologies, transportation, power areas, and cultural features.

Maurice T. Price writing in the October 1946 issue of *Educational Record* outlines suggested foreign area studies in this article, "Making Foreign Area Curriculums Feasible." A college faculty studying the problem may well consider his proposals.

Without these broad understandings, the teacher cannot identify world problems nor can he interpret them to his students. Herein can be found adequate proof that science and Twentieth Century civilization have made all people interdependent. There is no security for one segment when insecurity prevails elsewhere. Suffering, want and slavery in one part of the world endanger plenty, happiness, and freedom in other sections. Evidence is accumulating on every side to prove that we are our brother's keeper.

Probably no area of human knowledge offers greater returns to the teacher who is to labor for world peace than does that of psychology and anthropology. Without deep-rooted understanding and feelings relative to the fundamental aspects of human development, sound principles of human relations, individual rights and social responsibilities, no program for solving international problems can long endure. Man must understand man if he is to master the techniques of cooperation and to substitute mutual assistance for bloody,

ruthless competition. Man's basic needs, his attitudes and how they are formed, the fundamental environmental factors for promoting sound human growth, and the processes of social evolution are the fundamentals of teacher education.

International relations, like race relations or intercultural relations, is nothing more or less than one aspect of human relations. Only as society is examined in terms of human values, with emphasis on the proper functioning of human relations in the attainment of these values can sound leadership for peace be developed. For the 1945 Jefferson Day address which he was not permitted to deliver, Franklin Delano Roosevelt wrote, ". . . the mere conquest of our enemies is not enough. We must go on to do all in our power to conquer the doubts and the fears, the ignorance and the greed which made this horror possible. Today, we are faced with the pre-eminent fact that if civilization is to survive, we must cultivate the science of human relationships—the ability of all people of all kinds to live together, to work together in the same world at peace."

We cannot challenge the profound truth of these statements. Few men of intelligence will deny them. Yet, the masses of men stand with folded hands and calmly wait for war, or they wave the banner of hate to hasten the holocaust. Some few men, however, still retain faith and hope. Some look with enthusiasm to the long-dreamed-of world of cooperation and plenty. Some see endless energy within which men have sought. Such men believe the old stress

on material things, pecuniary attainments and the eulogy of ambitiousness as a valued characteristic are on the wane, and with them hatreds, maladjustments, fears and anti-social behavior. Surely the leaders in teacher education have the insight into men and their contemporary motives which will help bring light to darkness.

The effective teacher today works very closely with the community, particularly with the parents. Teaching the ways and means of effective peaceful living adds emphasis to this trend. The education of teachers should include knowledge and skill in the area of adult education together with fundamental instruction on how social action takes place. The techniques of propaganda analysis and a knowledge of propaganda methods should be included in the educational kit of all school practitioners.

Above all else, however, the teacher for peace should have the natural heritage plus a total experience background that has made of him a normal, well-adjusted, happy individual with an abundance of the milk of human kindness.

IV

Finally, his education should reveal to him the sources of fears, sufferings, bondage, hatreds and conflicts in his own nation, state, community, yes, even in his very classroom. The international scene, while casting a grim shadow and demanding immediate attention, must not dull our wits to the problems at home. Public education in America must get closer to reality. It cannot fulfill its

destiny by preaching superficial verbiage while injustices, hatreds and special privileges go unnoticed at the back door. Disease, poverty, intolerance and ignorance can and must be eradicated in America if democratic government is to survive and the school teacher is to play a major role. The cultural heritage of many races, the unique blessings of rich natural resources and kindly climate coupled with a democratic ideal not yet achieved but within reach, hold abundant cause for confidence. If we do not make the most of these blessings, and rapidly, this country can be thrown into chaos, turmoil, and civil strife. The situation demands acceleration in our efforts to make democracy in this country achieve in a practical sense what its ideals have always promised. The teacher must have an education that brings understanding of these problems. He also must have the "know-how" to exert leadership toward their solution.

The blueprint for the scope of educational preparation and the areas of special interest for teachers is fairly easy to draw. Most leaders in the field of teacher education would reach conclusions similar in many ways to those just described. The program for developing the student into a teacher with the knowledge, understanding, and skill needed to lead young and old is somewhat more difficult. In fact, it is in this area where great divergence of method should prevail. Colleges are unlike as to setting, student body, faculty and educational resources. Successful programs, therefore, depend upon the most effective use of local problems, resources,

community environment and student-faculty leadership. The principles of approach are likely to be common but divergence of attack is inevitable.

Some of the ways of educating the student teacher so that he may develop into this intelligent, understanding leader for world peace are suggested here.

A cooperative survey by administration, faculty, and students of the most pressing of man's contemporary problems will reveal war and peace as having top priority. If the machinery is cooperatively established for permitting all to seek out the problems confronting modern man, the area of international understanding is almost sure to be foremost. If it is not, the faculty as teachers, and the students as learners will profit little from having it as an aspect of the curriculum. If the students, faculty, and administration once become sensitive to the far-reaching importance of education for demonstrating means other than war for resolving man's differences, if they jointly and cooperatively seek the ways by which they as a group may help solve the problem, success is almost a foregone conclusion. These groups, once they pool their intelligence, can be expected to block out the areas of research and study and to plan a program of ways and means to accomplish their ends. Likewise, the problem comes into focus as a major area for curricular and extra-curricular attack.

To achieve this cooperative study approach, essentially democratic in nature, is difficult. Institutions of higher learning, in the main, are not democratic. The

prerogative of authority, the right to dominate whether it be by the president, the dean, the professor, or the student-teacher is cherished by too many. It seems a truism that no individual, regardless of his formal education, is likely to become democratic if he grows up in an authoritarian atmosphere. Every student must have opportunity to practice respecting the rights of others, to practice living as a free individual in a society sufficiently complex to restrict his freedom, to practice making decisions that may bring either penalties or rewards, in short to have the opportunity to live as a responsible citizen in a democratic society. Only by such experience can he learn the basic principles of human relationships. The college program organized in an atmosphere which emphasizes social responsibility and at the same time holds steadfastly to the purpose of the full development of each student as a unique and respected individual can go far toward education for world peace.

The more democratic the school life, the more mutually inter-dependent the faculty and students will realize themselves to be. Thus, more and more problem areas are attacked together. Similarly, the joys and values derived from living in peace are made more and more clear; not a peace where no values exist, hence no controversy, but a peace where conflicts are resolved without distrust, insecurity and force. Possibly this experience is the one most to be sought in an education today.

Any study of ways and means likely will lead to a re-examination of the over-all purposes of the college and

some analysis of the curriculum. The problem will have to be faced: Shall all this international contact be integrated with the total curriculum, isolated by fields or included in a core area which is comprehensive and draws content from all? Shall it be extra-curricular exclusively or included in a broad frontal attack? Much is to be gained if a broad program is pursued. Surely the extra-curricular program which provides for activities such as international relations clubs, geography clubs, forums, student government, travel tours, assemblies devoted to problems of peace, community intercultural experiences all have a place. Activities such as the experiment by Kansas State University—establishment of a college "united nations"—have possibilities.

The materials of instruction, too, should have special attention. Visual aids such as motion pictures, slides, graphs, charts, statistical tables, maps, globes, and models clarify concepts where written and oral language fail. Audio aids increasingly are available and are effective.

Provincialism within the faculty and student body often stands as a handicap. The more cosmopolitan a group becomes, the greater the ease of developing personal attitudes and broad human understandings. Faculties and students well might be recruited from many races, many cultures and mixed philosophies. Administrative policies, often controlled by provincial boards, give preference to local candidates who bring nothing fresh, different, or broadening to the staff or to the student body. Many areas

of our country would accept and certainly would profit by a policy of seeking scholars from many racial and cultural backgrounds. The cosmopolitan character of a teacher education institution may be greatly enhanced by exchange students and exchange professors. Foreign scholars visiting America should be sought as consultants, lecturers and specialists. The cultural resources of a community, both human and material, often reveal treasures overlooked by the college that lives a cloistered existence. The personnel of the United Nations, Pan-American Union, Unesco, our State Department, and the foreign embassies when used discreetly may contribute

much to student forums and international relations clubs.

It is not enough to say that the world sits on a powder keg. The keg is filled with material far more dangerous and powerful than powder. Furthermore, it is not too much to say that the world for the first time may blossom and bear fruit in profusion if that same power is used to produce rather than to destroy. America has a unique role to play in helping the world to determine its course. The teachers of our land, if properly prepared, can well be the force that leads civilization to unity, peace, and plenty. Will the colleges educating them meet the challenge?

We need to revive belief in personal responsibility and in ultimate values. Without these there can be no leadership. Perhaps one of the most striking phenomena of our time is the slump in hero-worship. The schoolmasters have read Lytton Strachey, and the children's teeth are set on edge. It may be better to have no heroes than to have false heroes: the results of "wanting to be like Stalin" or like Hitler, are conspicuously unattractive. Yet it is at our peril that we encourage the belief not only that there are no heroes deserving of our emulation but that there never have been, and, by implication, never will be.—The Times Educational Supplement (London), December 11, 1948

A Call to Poets

PHYLLIS TAUNTON WOOD

*Come, I Have Built a Fire,
To warm your frozen fingers!
Do you hear
My summoning whisper on the evening wind,
An elfin bugle piercing through the hum
Of market clatter, beating at your ear?
Come Kenneth, Walter, Kathleen, rise and come
You unknown host of singers, for my voice
Vibrating on a note that should be dear,
A human cry among the wolfish howls
And brassy din, is pitched for you to find.
I am the stirrup cup before you ride,
Ixarra, that Basque Liquor of the flowers
Cascading through your arteries to ignite
The lightning thought, and cram a hundred hours
Into one moment. Wine and flame, I stream along
Spurring your swooning spirits into song!*

We are numb with fear, sick with the fetid fume
Of incense we have paid to Satan. He,
Avid Apollyon, has bellied o'er
Our earth with stinking clouds of sottish thought,
Malice, race hatred, scorn and petty jeer
Infecting even our noblest. "Where are they,
The Thinkers and the Poets?" Wiechert* cried
Abandoned in his German prison. Shame
On us, and all who then kept silence! Let's resume
Warm hands of tender touch, unclouded minds
Whose wave length is humanity. I say,
Strike sparks, build beacons for a kinder day!

* Ernest Wiechert, German author imprisoned by Nazis.

You are the seed bed for to-morrow's flowers
Where weeds have flourished; for the world forgot
What things were lovely, chose a hideous god,
And daily grew more like the god they guessed.
Peony, Lotus, Rose, Forget-me-not
And Gentian need a gardener's care to show
The grace that withers in a barren sod.
Say then where glory lies!

Not epaulettes, or cunning use of gold,
Seductive paws, imperial talons, claim
Our suffrage here, but spirit in its birth
And syllables of spirit in our earth.
Join then, my brothers, let us dig the soil
With iron purpose! Each has known a secret walk
Alight with rainbows, paradisal ground,
Seen a white stag leaping through emerald glades
Laved in a sparkling sunlight, man and beast
In those unmapped and timeless flights we claim
To lose ourselves. There should our songs find frame.

You have found water in the wilderness,
But for your fellows you must raise it up
Bright with prismatic colour, rose and green
That scintillates within a diamond cup.
How little men divine the slow fatigue
Of fashioning the jewel! Quarried deep
In the old igneous rock of poet's life,
Bruted and ground to bezel and pavilion
Until at length the rose-cut gem is seen!
Easy to stint the work so little guessed
By laymen; but the Jewel must be wrought
To a brave glow upon a human breast;
And there, my brothers, is the solving chord
Of all my music. What we adumbrate,
Will be incarnate, smithied from our word.
Are you not torches, kindled, set apart
To throw your blaze, upon the shadowed thing?
Lift a bright flame! I hold you in my heart.
Take wing, my birds, rise to the sun and sing.

A Critic's Prayer

ALFRED R. HEDRICK

Dear gracious Lord, just Critic of Mankind,
If we must use the surgeon's searing knife,
If we must turn to scalpel's dreaded thrust,
Make us to use our deadly tools with skill,
With touch so deft they bring not death but life.
Show us to diagnose the killing ill
With judgment absolute, unerring, sure,
With nought of undue haste nor cursed delay.
Let no mistake be made in over-zeal,
In blind supererogatory belief
In our infallibility to discern
The evil and to find the remedy;
Yet when illness is quite fully understood,
When experience, ripened, logical,
Warns us what dire necessity decrees,
Grant us Thy saving, healing power,
The strengthening confidence to go ahead,
Serene in thought of end to be achieved.
Help us to make the hopeless victim see
The blessing of the white-hot, sharpened steel,
The mercy of the seeming merciless.

But for those countless haunting minor ills
Which merely need a passing glance and laugh,
Vouch us to lend our ready sympathy.
Open our blinded eyes and deafened ears
To others' rightful points of cherished view.
Help us to judge with broadened tolerance:
To hear the tuneful note in cluttered sound,
To catch the scintillation in dulled mass,
The diamond's gay flash though in the rough.
With due discrimination make us say
The needed word, deserved, of cheering praise.
Help us, ten thousand times ten thousand times,
Above all other things, help us to make
Those others whom we dare to criticize
See, that after all, we mellowed critics, bold,
Laugh most uproariously at just ourselves.

Building and Defending Democracy:

I. The Role of Workers' Education

MARK STARR

I

"As the city grew during the latter half of the Nineteenth century, insanitary conditions increased. It was a common practice to throw garbage and papers into the street. Youngsters earned a few coins by standing at Broadway near City Hall with a broom and, when a man or a woman wanted to cross the street, they would sweep a path through the muck." (*New York Times*, Nov. 19, 1948)

THIS news story, incidental to the fact that New York City was revising its old sanitary code, seems innocuous enough. If, however, an alert teacher in New York City public schools were to use it in his civics class to explain that the private enterprise of the small boys picking up pennies for service with their brooms had perforce to be replaced by the public enterprise of a permanent City Board of Health, that might be dangerous for his record and professional advancement. If he were further to show that private enterprise, when dangerous, has had to be regulated and in some cases to be replaced by public ownership and operation of basic services, and that this process might have to be repeated, he would only deepen his crime. For even in New York City the intellectual underworld of frightened reaction influences teachers,

principals and supervisors; and some members of the Board of Education might regard such speculations as "dangerous thoughts."

In contrast, effective workers' education must continually point out the inconsistencies of our social life (for example, New York teachers who must teach cleanliness to their students despite the lack of soap and towels in the school washroom) and study the present to help build the future. Such critical alertness to challenge and change is, of course, the basis of all good teaching procedures.

A time-honored story about the difference between workers' education and other forms runs thus: A diligent teacher in a home economics class had given a good lesson upon the nutritive values of soup bones obtained for a few pennies at the butcher store. She paused at the end to ask for questions and finally one gaunt Scotch lady at the back of the classroom demanded "Who had the meat off those bones in the first place?" It is such probing and disturbing questions which workers' education must ask about our social system if it is to fill its role as intellectual dynamite, blazing the way through outmoded institutions to more democratic and just ways of living. It is this disturbing quality which makes workers' education

NOTE: This is the first of a series of articles on the theme Building and Defending Democracy.

suspect, both to the cloistered academic and the satisfied supporter of the status quo.

In Britain workers' education, as advocated by the National Council of Labor Colleges, made its slogan "Education for emancipation." The movement in other European countries was also linked to the advocacy of social changes by consent. In the United States this phase has never been stressed because the circumstances are different. The intellectual climate and the alignment of the contending social groups and forces reflect a different geographic, economic and historic environment, the analysis of which goes beyond the scope of this article. But the challenge of workers' education to orthodox education and the institutions which it supports is not by any means absent in the U.S.A.

II

Instead of the Three R's of the old-fashioned public school, workers' education might well be listed as teaching the Three D's. First of all, workers' education is a necessary *discipline*. In this age, when students "get by," when lecturers must be vaudeville artists, when wisdom must be translated into would-be wise-cracks, when a deadly corrosion and a sapping of our moral fibre are indicated by the give-away radio shows, the suggestive sexy nature of our tabloid newspapers and by many of our movies—such a discipline is vitally necessary. While the Harvard Report may not have evoked general consent in every particular, its references to the ever-increasing and unprecedented debilitation of the

public mind by radio, movies, newspapers and comics compel general approval.

Elsewhere the writer in a paper "The Menace of Social Illiteracy" has described the dangerous competition now faced by the modern educator in the mass media of communication just mentioned which now overshadow the home, school and church in the formation of public opinion. We all see the long lines of eager, excited kids outside our movies on Saturday mornings for the doubtful fare provided. When, as now, television enables us to hear and see more about beer or to watch two otherwise grown-up men nose peanuts across the contest floor to win the sponsor's product, men's inventive genius seems perverted to futility. One pathetically recalls Hamlet's "What a piece of work is man! . . . in form and moving how express and admirable!"

In confirmation of the writer's anxiety, the summary given by J. Donald Adams in the *New York Times Book Review* (Sept. 12, 1948) may be cited:

"Our favorite recreational reading deals in elaborately concocted means of murdering each other; the movies are still searching for the ultimate in violence that can be crowded into an hour and a half on the screen; the last thing you will find in the comics is a laugh; the picture magazines are apparently determined to probe the relation between the seeing eye and the quiet stomach. No sooner have we adjusted ourselves to the idea of living in the same world with a released monster in the form of atomic energy than we are bombarded with books telling us that even if we escape, atomic and biological warfare, the human race is a gone goose anyway unless it stops

plundering its resources, and pronto.

"The opinion poll—one of the smartest conjuring stunts the Devil has thought up since he started in business—tells us what we think even before we have made up our minds. [Written before Nov. 2, 1948.] It is only one phase of our favorite sport of frightening one another with statistics, which are the most grotesque false-faces made in our time. If ever we take to worshiping brazen images, ours will be a monstrous neon numeral set up in Times Square and its country-wide equivalents. A statistician's handful of incipient exhibitionists and confession-starved individuals submits to detailed questioning on its sex habits, and the published results are received like a carved tablet from Sinai."

Workers' education helps the worker, despite the pressure of making a living and the many claims upon his leisure, to take himself in hand and make serious and consecutive study of some division of the social sciences or to acquire skills in public speaking and parliamentary law and political activity by the tool courses of the workers' education program. Importantly, such study is usually made by *groups*, composed of individuals sharing the same problems. The advantages of group approach as contrasted with the solitary burning of the midnight oil are obvious to all who have enjoyed the stimulation of group discussion by adults of wide and diversified experience and under competent guidance.

Such groups at their best accept the creed of W. K. Clifford, the British scientist, who said that we should try "to do as well as possible what we can do best; to work for the improvement of the social organization; to seek earn-

estly after truth and only to accept provisionally opinions one has not enquired into; to regard men as comrades in work and their freedom as a sacred thing; in fact, to recognize the enormous and fearful difference between truth and falsehood, right and wrong, and how truth and right are to be got by free enquiry. . . ."

The immediate purpose of workers' education in the U.S.A. is to train for trade union service. In vocational education workers hope to learn more to earn more; but increased technical education, helping the worker to produce more, does not mean that the workers as such get more. Workers' education is also differentiated from hobbies and the study of the humanities by its practical application for group purposes. Courses for new members, training for union officers, the specialized study of the economics of given industries and the history of particular unions and of the general labor movement with analysis of their structure and functioning enjoy priority. Summer institutes, sometimes utilizing the staff and plant of colleges and universities, seem the most effective agency in recent years. Most progress is made when the unions on a national or state level set up their own educational departments, which make articulate the unions' needs, and participate in preparation and execution of educational programs when cooperation is given by the institutions of higher learning.

An evaluation of the experiments already made by some 60 institutions of higher learning in the field of labor relations has been made by Caroline Ware

in "Labor and the Universities" (American Labor Education Service, 1946). Such cooperation has its own dangers as recently exposed at the University of Michigan. Here a successful Workers Education Extension project, serving some 60,000 trade unionists, was suspended and its leader dismissed because of complaints instigated by General Motors. At present writing, the project has been revived but has been robbed of its previous freedom to experiment, its flexibility to carry classes into the workshop and union hall and of its originating personnel. Readers of *The Educational Forum* might well study the rapidly increasing educational, recreational, cultural and welfare activities of some of the large unions in the U.S.A. such as the United Automobile Workers (CIO), the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union (AFL), and the Georgia Workers Education Service as well as the nationwide operations of the Workers Education Bureau and the American Labor Education Service. In "Labor Looks at Education" (Inglis Lecture, 1946, reprinted by the League for Industrial Democracy) this writer has detailed some of the gaps in orthodox education which workers' education must try to fill. On the credit side, however, there are the improved textbooks used in high school and college. "Labor in America" by Harold U. Faulkner and Mark Starr, the first such monograph for use in fourth year of high school, has gone through three printings and appears in a new edition in 1949. Minnesota has pioneered with a special syllabus for a study unit "Industrial and

Agricultural and Labor Relations for Minnesota Living" which includes "the teacher's role in education for better industrial-labor relations."

III

Workers' education should, in the second place, be a *directive*. So far, in the United States, the labor unions and their leaders, under the early and continuing influence of Samuel Gompers, have prided themselves upon having no philosophy and no agreed ultimate aims. Thus they proved that they were native to the pragmatic climate of the U.S.A. However, this phase is passing—for the trade unions and indeed for the United States itself. The labor movement generally must begin to formulate aims which will direct its action for the next century and more. When unions were small, their relation to the community, the nation and the world was not so important; they could operate safely by rule of thumb. But what over 15 million workers and their relatives do—since the New Deal decade brought Labor unprecedented strength—has great significance and can no longer be left to instinctive reactions.

Because orthodox educational institutions do not feel or understand the motivation of the labor movement and do not, except in rare cases, sympathize with the aims and ideals of organized labor, they cannot of themselves give this directive. Even if they were able to formulate a philosophy for Labor, it is not likely that it would be accepted with confidence. A new outlook cannot be an intellectual hand-me-down. Move-

ments, like men, have to sweat out their own philosophy and apply it if it is to mean anything.

To be anti-Communist or anti-Fascist is not enough. Labor must have a positive program. Despite the fact that the leaders of the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations and the Railroad Brotherhoods all give lip service to private enterprise and sometimes use collectivism as a threat to recalcitrant employers, it seems clear that the philosophy of Labor will be based upon and influenced by the New Deal experiences of 1933-43. The voluntarism of Gompers—who looked upon the State with the same suspicion as Herbert Spencer—has been eroded rather than abandoned. Never again will there be a depression during which the people of the U.S.A. will not expect a repetition of the remedies improvised by Franklin D. Roosevelt. Never will there be a large-scale problem of flood prevention, utilization of water-power, and of irrigation and land conservation without a reference to the success of the TVA. Free enterprise will be expected to be *responsible* free enterprise—responsible to the community in which it operates. (The outcry by local conservatives in Nashua, N.H., against the proposal by Textron and its head, Mr. Little, to abandon its mills and discharge 3000 workers is a current example of the responsibility expected.) Free enterprise will include both *public* and *private* enterprise. The community will consciously use the powers of its government for welfare purposes. We shall do together as citizens through the agency of

the state what we cannot do as individuals. Maybe this will be called democratic collectivism and maybe it will not be given an accepted label. In essence, it will mean social planning *plus* the Bill of Rights. It will mean a re-education for us all in our concepts of success. It will mean new incentives of social service. It will mean freedom *and* security.

This outlook will be first developed by workers' education because it is a new force developed from below. Nevertheless, all men and women of social intelligence in every social stratum will aid to develop and apply this new frame of reference.

IV

The other great service of workers' education is to serve as a *dynamic*. Group study of group problems in workers' education fails unless it results in group action for their attempted solution. It cannot be content with the right to ask questions. "Knowledge for the sake of knowledge" is equivalent to saying "garbage cans for the sake of garbage cans." Acquirement of knowledge by itself is an incomplete procedure. Knowledge must be a guide and a spur to action if it is going to rescue itself from sterility. The dilettante must be replaced by the social activist. Theory and practice must ever be in mutual and beneficial reaction, the one to the other. You cannot drive safely by looking only in the rear mirror. News from the graveyard and philosophic meanderings about past civilization are of little help to men and women faced with the problems of the insecurity of life, the struggle to

elevate their standards of life and the threat of modern war.

Belief and education should end in action. For example, a theoretical belief in world unity is of little value unless we try to make UNESCO function effectively. Education should not only teach us what to do but how to do it; not only how to think but what to think in such a way as to influence our fellow citizens. In all this, of course, education can become pernicious if directed to create antagonism against another group. This danger we have seen demonstrated at great peril and with immeasurable cost to humanity in the Fascist and Soviet states. In the U.S.A. also we must be aware of the same danger arising from the activity of our professional patriots who would interpret patriotism as the hatred of other peoples' countries instead of love of their own. Nero fiddling while Rome burned seems, in comparison, a harmless pyromaniac compared to those who, after Hiroshima, still hymn nationalist hates and rivalries. Surely in a world in which *technical* science has split the atom, *social* science must unite that world and quickly!

Education, as the tongues in Aesop's fable, can be the best and the worst thing in the world. Education which aimlessly distracts our attention to trifles; education which poisons with ideas of nationalist and racial superiority and sovereignty; and even education which is fixed in a fluid world—all are positive dangers.

These are the Three D's of workers' education as a discipline, a directive and

a dynamic, which give it an important role in our endeavor to defend, build and enrich Democracy. One should not, however, expect too much from the beginnings of workers' education but it will serve as a leaven in the workers' movement despite the relative poverty of its present facilities relative to its potentiality. The perversion of mass media to distraction and amusement creates definite obstacles to workers' education. Yet it is encouraging to report that the modern mass media are being influenced by the great advance of Labor which began so notably in the New Deal decade, 1933-43. Some of these media, including the "comics," are being sublimated. Labor is attaining a sense of responsibility equivalent to its increased power. The experience of the Taft-Hartley Act convinced it that what the government could give, the government could take away, and that Labor would have to think out new methods and aims in political action. Already it has increased participation by union members in the privilege of voting. Labor is anxious and willing to improve its own organization and to improve the techniques of Labor-Management cooperation. It is anxious to study the function of labor unions in industries and services owned or operated by public bodies. It is willing to replace the old-time psychology of conflict with a new psychology of cooperation. It is prepared to exercise a constructive influence in industry which intelligent Management will welcome. All these trends make workers' education indispensable in building and defending real democracy.

America in the Eyes of Chinese Students

THEODORE HSI-EN CHEN

I

To see ourselves as others see us is often an edifying experience. It helps us not only to understand ourselves better, but also to understand the viewpoint of other people.

Over a period of more than twenty years, the writer has been interested in the reactions of Chinese students in America to American life and American society. Through personal talks and group discussions, he has gathered a large amount of data in regard to early impressions of Chinese students upon their arrival in the United States and the problems they are confronted with in the course of their stay in American colleges and universities. It is his purpose in this article to report briefly some of the data he has gathered through the years.

There is another reason why the reactions of Chinese students should be of interest to Americans, who are eager to promote international understanding between nations. For some years the flow of Chinese students into this country for advanced study has been an important factor in bringing about friendly relations between the United States and China. Chinese students who have studied in this country return to China not only with increased knowledge of specialized fields, but also with ideas about American life, American institutions, and the American people. Such ideas play an important part in Chinese-American relations and in proposed pro-

grams for change and reform in China. No one would dare claim that Chinese students have always had opportunity to know the best of America and American life. No one would deny that there is plenty of room for more careful guidance so that the Chinese students in this country may be able to make the most profitable use of their opportunity and to become acquainted with many phases of American life. Knowledge of their reactions, their biases, and their problems will greatly help in working toward a more intelligent program of guidance for these cultural guests from the other side of the Pacific Ocean.

Adjustment to life in a foreign land is not always easy; understanding life and customs and institutions in a foreign land is even more difficult. Although most Chinese students have heard and read a good deal about the United States before they sail for this country, the knowledge they gain from books and movies and hearsay prove oftentimes to be inadequate background for the concrete adjustments they are called upon to make upon their arrival in the foreign country.

In the first place, the language difficulty is a problem which most students are confronted with in greater or less degree. The English language they learn from books and classrooms when they are in China is different from the English they hear in everyday contacts with American people. They come into

contact with a new vocabulary not found in their textbooks. They have difficulty in appreciating nuances of words used in different connections and with different connotations; they search the dictionary in vain for the meaning of idioms and slang expressions. In the classroom they find it difficult to follow lectures, even more so to take correct notes of what they do understand. Class discussions are especially bewildering; while organized lectures of professors are relatively easy to follow, class discussions are much harder to grasp and the foreign students sometimes even fail to catch the general drift of the group discussion.

As a rule, Chinese students do not participate readily in class discussions. The language difficulty furnishes only a partial explanation. The Chinese are by temperament more reserved and therefore the student hesitates to speak in class unless he is called upon. Noting the popularity of student participation in the classroom, the Chinese student in an American university often feels impelled to take part in the discussions, but he is so afraid that what he says may not be pertinent or correctly expressed that he finally decides to remain silent. Beginning from the kindergarten and the grade school, the American pupil is encouraged to ask questions and make comments. The raising of hands to obtain permission to speak is a common phenomenon in the American classroom. Pupils of all levels enjoy having a share in the classroom activities.

The Chinese student, however, comes from a different background. He is not used to spontaneous class discussions. He

feels embarrassed when he hears remarks that he does not consider pertinent to the subject under discussion and the embarrassment makes him even more hesitant to open his mouth. Partly because of language difficulty, he feels that many remarks and questions by students in class have little connection with the topic under study and he feels that he should not contribute to further waste of time. He feels that many questions betray a lack of study and he does not want to embarrass himself by asking a question that may sound foolish or unnecessary to other people.

The new social environment in which the Chinese student finds himself calls for many adjustments, some easy, others more difficult. Many a Chinese student has reported a continuous emotional tension which lasts for many months until he becomes more accustomed to new conditions. The problem of food and diet often affects the physical well-being of the new arrival. Many Chinese students do not like American food; they are not accustomed to such dishes as cold meat and they consider the American way of cooking vegetables extremely unpalatable and monotonous. A common remark is that American food is not attractive and does not stimulate the appetite; one does not feel like eating very much.

Some students are fortunate in being able to secure rooms with housekeeping privileges and they are thus enabled to prepare Chinese food for themselves. But such opportunities are rare in these days of housing shortage. It is difficult enough to find rooms within the price

range a student can afford; to find rooms with housekeeping privileges is practically an impossibility.

As a matter of fact, the housing problem is one of the most irritating problems facing many a Chinese student. Here he comes up against a very unpleasant aspect of American life, namely, the existence of racial prejudice which makes it extremely difficult for an Oriental student to find rooming facilities. This is particularly true in California. A new arrival does not meet with a wholesome introduction to American life when he spends the first few days in looking for a room or apartment. He stops at a place where he sees a "For Rent" sign but when he rings the bell he is told that the place is not available for Orientals. After a few experiences like this, he begins to have serious doubts in his mind in regard to the American democracy he has read about in books and heard about from the mouths of Americans in China. He wonders whether there is really such a thing as equality of opportunity in American life.

Even under the most favorable circumstances, the foreigner tends to be over-sensitive. He feels uncomfortable when he is gazed upon as an object of curiosity, however natural and harmless such curiosity may be. When in addition to the normal reactions toward strangers there exists a practice of discrimination, the foreigner tends to become extremely sensitive in daily human relations. He resents being treated always as a foreigner, a Chinese, instead of merely as a student. If he arrives early in the classroom, he is asked whether Chinese stu-

dents always go to class so early; if he is late, some one is likely to make a remark on traditional Chinese lack of punctuality. He feels that he is always a strange specimen. Even when some well-meaning person comes to comfort him with the statement, "I don't blame you for not liking racial discrimination; I am absolutely opposed to it; to me, you are as good as an American," he does not feel too happy, because in his sensitive mood he detects or suspects a condescending or paternalizing attitude which merely underscores the absence of racial equality.

II

On the whole, the Chinese students find much in American life that they like and admire. They find the American people energetic, enthusiastic, and very friendly toward strangers. They appreciate the friendliness with which people answer questions, whether in the Railway Station or at the street corner. They are impressed by the courteous manner of well-trained policemen, salesmen and salesgirls in the stores, the persons in charge of the information desks everywhere, and of people in general who are willing to take time to answer the questions of puzzled strangers in a new environment.

They find the American people much younger in spirit than the Chinese people. Americans seem to be full of vitality and eager to be on the go all the time. The bountiful energy of the people is particularly impressive in group gatherings on and off the campus. Group activities are never dull; people participate

in singing, sports, and games with great gusto and enthusiasm. In watching the tempo of American life and the speed with which people rush from one task to another, the visitor from the other side of the Pacific sometimes wonders whether Americans have any time for the quiet enjoyment of life. But, on the whole, he is a great admirer of the robust health and bountiful energy of the American people.

No visitor from the Orient can, of course, fail to be impressed by the technological advance and the scientific manipulation of the material environment for human comfort and enjoyment. He finds that the material environment in the United States is as advanced and as wonderful as he originally expected. He is impressed by the efficient systems of transportation and communication. The efficient railway system is supplemented by airlines and highways which enable the common man to conquer distance. The ubiquitous telephone service reaches every town and every home and transforms the very pattern of living.

Automobile parking meters, cafeterias and automat, and such strange sights as the moving of an entire house on wheels from one place to another fill a visitor with nothing but wonder and a keen appreciation of the application of science and technology to daily living. The stores and markets are eloquent expressions of the wealth and plentifullness that exist in this land. The neat and attractive homes enjoyed by the common people and the comforts of life contributed by modern conveniences all testify to the high standard of living in this land of plenty. Once in a while a meditative

Chinese would ask whether the advanced development of material comforts of life have not resulted in a tendency to evaluate life in terms of material possessions and to identify the goals of living with physical comfort, but, in general, this phase of American life arouses the enthusiastic admiration of most Chinese students.

Comparing American conditions with those in his own country, the Chinese students are impressed by the prevalence of public schools, the high level of the general education of the people, the wide circulation of newspapers, and the popularity of radio programs, forums, and public lectures organized by the community. They marvel at the beautiful parks and beaches and the facilities provided for public enjoyment. They appreciate the measures taken to safeguard public health. They are also impressed by the fact that parks and beaches are kept in good order and, usually, fairly neat condition. They come to the conclusion that American society is a stable and well-organized one and is not subject to such sharp changes and disturbances as a transitional society like the Chinese. The people in general co-operate in the maintenance of public places. Even such a small thing as the deposit of picnic remnants in garbage cans provided in parks and beaches becomes of significance to the visitor from the Orient. A stable society makes possible many conveniences enjoyed by all. The prevalent use of personal checks in America is an example of such a convenience.

In regard to personal characteristics, the Chinese student is impressed by the individualism and independence of

Americans. He likes the independence of young people as shown when teen-age boys and girls take up such tasks as selling newspapers and working in stores in order to gain financial independence. He finds that the individual is less dependent on the family and more willing to struggle on his own resources. Sometimes, Chinese students who learned about American college life through the movies they saw in China had got the wrong impression that American college life consisted largely of fun and frolic. Not a few of them reported that it was a new revelation to them to find after having been here for a few months that many American boys and girls had to struggle their way through college and were engaged in various forms of employment to finance their own education. When they know of cases where students work long hours for self-support and give up all play in the evenings and during week-ends for the sake of employment, they get an entirely different idea of college life and of American youth.

The activities of the students and the relations between teachers and students all reflect an atmosphere of freedom. The classroom is characterized by informality. The new arrival is sometimes puzzled by what he considers an abuse of freedom when he sees another student slouch in his chair with one foot on the chair, but after observing repeated examples of like nature he becomes accustomed and judges that probably no disrespect is involved in such free and easy classroom manners.

Many a Chinese student has remarked about the curiosity of Americans. They

find that American people are curious to find out about things and people. They ask many questions in the classroom and outside. They bombard the foreign visitor with endless questions about his habits, his clothing, his personal characteristics, his reactions to American life. Some of the questions seem too personal and embarrassing to the visitor but on the whole they are an expression of a wholesome curiosity which leads to new knowledge and new discoveries.

The Chinese student finds the American people much more demonstrative than the Chinese people. American demonstrativeness is seen not only in the demonstration of love and affection in public, but also in such common verbal expressions as "How lovely!", "How cute", "Isn't that grand?", "That's certainly too bad!", "You're just marvelous!" and so on and so forth. The reaction to this phase of American life varies with individuals. Many feel that the profuse expressions of appreciation and the general compliments exchanged between friends and strangers alike add much to the fun and joy of life, while others consider such expressions as embarrassing and at times too superficial to have any real meaning.

III

The Chinese visitor observes in the American environment some things which bewilder him. It seems strange to him that the drugstore should be a place where people go for meals; his own feelings would be that a store selling drugs and medicines would not provide a very pleasant environment for meals. He has to be warned before he goes to the barber

but fewer friends. Americans are profuse in such common courtesies as "Hello," "Goodmorning," "Goodbye," and other pleasant words of compliment and appreciation. But the Chinese visitor sometimes wonders whether there is not a difference between such courtesies and genuine deep friendship. He finds that Americans make an unnecessary distinction between friendship and business. They do not mix business with friendship. Friendly relations with the landlord or landlady do not make business relations any more easy. In China, on the other hand, personal friendly relations go a long way to help in settling business matters. American people, it seems, can be very friendly and generous in normal times, but become very formal and strict when discussing business matters with friends.

A thoughtful Chinese student once remarked that America is a wonderful land for children and young people, but not for old people. Many other Chinese students would agree with him in his observation that American society greatly neglects old people and provides few comforts for old age. From the Chinese point of view, nothing can quite take the place of the family in giving old people a sense of security in the home, a pride in their offspring, and the satisfaction that comes from being the respected elders of their own family. Homes for the aged, the Chinese student points out, do not solve the psychological problems of old people. He feels sad when he sees an old landlord or an old landlady who enjoys no other companion than a dog or a cat. In view

of the prevalent neglect of old age, he does not wonder why the American people are so afraid of becoming old and why middle-aged people are so averse to admitting their age, instead of taking pride in maturity and the respect which age in Chinese society would normally bring.

It may be observed here that too many Chinese students unfortunately base their impressions of America upon their contacts with landlords and landladies. The cold and calculating business attitudes of many a landlord or landlady have given many a Chinese student a distorted view of American life. For the purpose of acquainting the foreign visitor with many phases of life in America, it is imperative that special effort should be made to bring him into American homes and to give him an opportunity to know the more wholesome aspects of American life.

Chinese students come to the United States with great hopes and high expectations. For years, while attending schools and colleges in China, they have cherished the ambition of coming to the United States for further study; they have dreamed of large American universities with their well-known professors and amply equipped libraries and laboratories; they have waited impatiently to visit this land of plenty, the land of freedom and of equal opportunity, the stronghold of democracy, the nation noted for humanitarian generosity. Upon arrival, they find many things that fully measure up to their expectations, other things which disappoint them. The net impression of

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America depends much on the specific experiences on and off the campus; happy associations enable many a student to enjoy and appreciate the finest aspects of American life and bring back to China fond memories of friendly and democratic living among congenial people, while at other times unfortunate incidents may color (or discolor) the entire experience of living abroad and even affect scholastic achievement. A wise

program of guidance will go far toward insuring that the Chinese student may have broad and wide contacts enabling him to see and know American life in its varied aspects, to form a balanced view of this land and its people, and, both while in this country and after return to China, to become an effective force working for a closer understanding and a deeper mutual appreciation between the two nations and peoples.

The world has never had a good definition of the word liberty, and the American people, just now, are much in want of one. We all declare for liberty, but in using the same word we do not mean the same thing. With some the word liberty may mean for each man to do as he pleases with himself, and the product of his labor; while with others the same word may mean for some men to do as they please with other men, and the product of other men's labor. Here are two, not only different, but incompatible things, called by the same name—liberty. And it follows that each of the things is, by the respective parties, called by two different and incompatible names—liberty and tyranny.

The shepherd drives the wolf from the sheep's throat, for which the sheep thanks the shepherd as a liberator, while the wolf denounces him for the same act as the destroyer of liberty, especially as the sheep was a black one. Plainly the sheep and the wolf are not agreed upon a definition of the word liberty, and precisely the same difference prevails today among us human creatures.—ABRAHAM LINCOLN in "The Baltimore Address."

Some Evidence of Henry Barnard's Influence in the South

EDGAR W. KNIGHT

I

HENRY BARNARD stands out with Horace Mann in New England, Calvin Wiley in North Carolina, and others, as pioneers in public educational leadership in this country. Barnard was fifteen years younger than Mann, who was born in 1796, and eight years older than Wiley, who was born in 1819. Mann was graduated from Brown University in 1819, Barnard from Yale in 1830 and Wiley from the University of North Carolina in 1840.

All three of these men had similar collegiate experiences in a classical curriculum, all participated in collegiate debating societies and each of them developed into a ready and polished speaker and effective writer, having, as his reports and articles and speeches indicate, a "feeling" for the mother tongue which he wrote and spoke with extraordinary force. All three of these educational leaders read law and were admitted to the bar. All were interested in educational journalism as an effective means for educational reform and each

of them established an educational journal in his State.

All these men had similar legislative experiences and supported in their respective Legislatures bills for the establishment of state supervision through the creation of a state board of education with a secretaryship in Massachusetts and Connecticut, and the first state superintendency of common schools in North Carolina. In politics they were all Whigs. Mann was elected to the Legislature of Massachusetts in 1827 and was reelected to the House each year until he was chosen Senator in 1833. He served in the Senate four years and as president the last two, and signed the act that created the position of Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education in which he served for twelve years with great distinction. Barnard was elected to the Legislature of Connecticut in 1837 and energetically sponsored educational legislation, particularly the bill that provided for a state educational organization similar to that earlier created in Massachusetts. Wiley served in the Legislature of North Carolina and introduced and worked for the bill which became law in 1852 that created the office of state superintendent of common schools to which he was appointed. He took office January 1, 1853, and served until 1866.

These notes deal, however, especially with Barnard,¹ who accepted the secre-

¹ Most of the Henry Barnard manuscripts are in the Washington Square Library of New York University, more than 13,000 letters and papers, and in the Wadsworth Atheneum at Hartford, Connecticut, which has about 2,500 more or less miscellaneous pieces. In the collection at New York University are several letters from Southerners, pertaining to education in the South. Microcopies of these letters now are in the library of the University of North Carolina.

taryship of the State Board of Education of Connecticut and served in that post for four years from 1838. The Democrats gained power in 1842 and the Legislature discontinued the "experiment" following the way New York State had taken in 1821 when Gideon Hawley, the first state superintendent of schools in this country, was removed and his office abolished.

But Barnard was more resourceful than Hawley had been. Invited to Rhode Island to advise the Legislature of that State concerning a bill for educational reorganization, Barnard made recommendations that were so enthusiastically received that a bill was speedily enacted into law; and he became the first commissioner of education in that state where he served with high distinction until ill health forced him to leave the post in 1849. Later a professorship of education was considered for him at Yale (but nothing came of it) and the superintendencies of schools in Boston,

Cincinnati, and New Orleans, and the presidencies of the University of Indiana and of Michigan were offered him. With the restoration of his health and the return of the Whigs to political control in Connecticut, Barnard returned as state superintendent and as principal of the newly created state normal school. Numerous were his achievements as educational administrator, journalist, writer on school architecture, and "scholar" of the American educational awakening, and particularly as editor of his famous *American Journal of Education* which began in 1855 and reached thirty-one volumes of about eight hundred pages each.

II

Barnard's, as Mann's,² leadership attracted considerable attention in the South, as Barnard's letters in the Washington Square Library of New York University show, and his educational journal seems to have been rather widely read in that section. N. H. Seaford wrote to Barnard from Rockville, Rowan County, North Carolina, in November, 1856, requesting that a copy of *The American Journal of Education* be sent him "for specimen as I wish to introduce it more extensively in this state." William F. Perry,³ first state superintendent of schools in Alabama, wrote from Montgomery, January 14, 1857, and sent Barnard the prospectus of "what I have proposed in reference to your periodical." Perry ordered ten copies of Barnard's journal to be distributed so as "to get our teachers into the habit of taking such works." Superintendent Calvin H. Wiley wrote Barnard, August

¹ Edgar W. Knight, "Some Evidences of Horace Mann's Influence in the South," *School and Society*, Vol. 65 (January 18, 1947), 33-37, and "More Evidence of Horace Mann's Influence in the South," *Educational Forum*, XII (January, 1948). The originals of scores of letters from southerners to Horace Mann are the property of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Photocopies of many of these letters now are in the library of the University of North Carolina.

² Perry was born in Georgia, received little formal schooling, taught school in Talladega County, Alabama, from 1845 to 1853, while studying law, and served as state superintendent of schools in Alabama for two terms, from 1854 to 1858, resigning in the latter year to become president of East Alabama Female College, Tuskegee. He rose from private to the rank of brigadier general in the war of 1861-1865 and saw action at Gettysburg. He later had charge of a military college at Glendale, Kentucky, and later still taught in Ogden College, Bowling Green, Kentucky.

25, 1856, reporting on his own educational journal for North Carolina which he proposed to send "free to all the officers of our Com. School System." He also offered to contribute an article to Barnard's journal and expressed the hope: "If you think my proposed improvements [of] our System here worthy of approbation an Editorial endorsement from you of some length (page or two) would do good. We are doing better than any of our neighbors—but we lack confidence in ourselves, & have so long looked for ridicule abroad, that foreign praise helps us amazingly. Please write soon." And in a postscript Wiley added "I expect you to say only what you think—& as I believe the improvements suggested are very important I feel sure that part of my plan at least will meet the approbation of one so experienced in such things." The following April Wiley wrote and thanked Barnard for a letter which he had just received. "I hope yet to avail myself of your hospitable offers—certainly, I think, I could spend some days in Hartford to great profit & pleasure.

"I wish I could meet you in Buncombe" in Mid-Summer—Your wishes will be attended to, providence permitting—& you may expect me to aid your enterprise to the extent of my opportunities."

The minutes of the Commissioners of

⁴ Buncombe County, in the mountains of North Carolina, has long been a favorite summer resort. Asheville is the county seat.

⁵ MS. Minutes of the Commissioners of Free Schools of Charleston, January 1855 to December 1873, pp. 34, 35, 37, 50. The materials are in the Historical Commission of Charleston. Typescript copies are in the library of the University of North Carolina.

Free Schools of Charleston for May 15, 1856, show that a committee of that body had been given "the duty of visiting New York, with authority to engage a Principal, and two female teachers for the Model School of this City." On that date the committee reported that "after diligent examination" J. D. Geddings, for several years "a superintendent of education at Brooklyn, and also for many years had been engaged in teaching," was invited to the principalship "of the Male Grammar School, with superintendence over the whole." It appeared that Geddings had many recommendations, but he was "more particularly recommended to the Committee by Mr. Barnard who is so well known to the Public in connection with works on education." The salary of Geddings was \$2000 a year. Two woman teachers, "The Misses Edmonds," were elected at the same meeting, on recommendation of the committee of the Commissioners, but their salaries were not indicated in the minutes of that board. Those minutes for August 12, 1856, show that because of yellow fever in Charleston, leaves of absence were granted to Geddings and the Misses Edmonds "for immediate departure (instead of waiting for the commencement of the regular vacation) from the city."

Geddings wrote Barnard several letters from Charleston. In 1856 (no month or day given) he wrote that he and a Mr. McCarter that morning had obtained six subscribers to Barnard's journal. "Will get more from day to day as I make acquaintances. . ." Geddings reported that the historical data which Barnard had requested would soon be

assembled and sent to him.⁶ He was sorry "that Col Memminger & his gentlemanly colaborgers know really so little of what is wanted to make a good school —of what *they* & *what* I wish them should do."⁷ One of the most unfortunate events—is writing to N York instructing the Ladies to select & cause to be purchas^d such Books as they respectively would be pleas^d to use in Charleston. & consequently they have caused a Resurrection of old books from the N York charnel House of such wares, Cor Elm & Grover St & selected enough of them to ruin the schools of any American city for one generation. . . . Mandeville & Co. & any quantity of the bla-ble pha-phe productions are to have one more chance for Imortality before being consigned to their final Sepulchre. If such

⁶ This indicates one of Barnard's methods in getting material for his journal.

⁷ See below letter by C. C. Memminger to Barnard from Flat Rock, North Carolina, August 1, 1856.

"Probably statistics and other materials on education. In a letter of February 30, 1857, Geddings wrote Barnard that "I've call'd often upon Mr. Tuttet for Statistics & other data of the Savannah Schools but unfortunately the documents were some time ago mislaid & his pressure of business didn't—haan't permitted him to find them. . . ."

⁸ Robert F. W. Allston (1801-1864) was a distinguished South Carolinian, agriculturist, scholar, statesman. He was graduated from the United States Military Academy in 1821, served for many years in both Houses of the Legislature of South Carolina (in the Senate from 1832 to 1856 and president of that body from 1847 to 1856) and became Governor of the State in 1856. He was an energetic advocate of public education. In 1846 he was head of a Committee of the State Agricultural Society of South Carolina to report on the "defects of the present school system." His report the following year, which became the basis of some reforms, may be found in the *South Carolina Reports and Resolutions* for 1847, pp. 210-43. The substance of this report may be found in Edgar W. Knight's *Public Education in the South*, 221.

practices prevail & N Y hears such—I fear the days of *thick darkness* to P Schools here are yet to be realized. 'O that I were a voice A persuasive voice' I will get & forward the matter" you desire with the least possible delay."

In a letter of February 30, 1857, Geddings reported educational matters in Charleston "progressing swim-mingly" and said that the Legislature had given the city power to increase the taxes about \$20,000 annually for educational purposes. Plans were made for the erection of another school building and it had been

voted to place all the Free Schools under the new Pub school system, procuring suitable buildings; with improvd Furniture & with Books uniform with those used in our Model School & to grade the Schools as in Northern Cities—Last Tuesday the first general appointment [sic] of Teachers was made, & on Monday next 5 schools additional to the one now in operation will start upon their *new career* My own school has been thronged since my return in Novr—800—being our complement tho more than 200 applicants were necessarily rejected last term—We are increasing our accommoda-tions to increase our nos to—1000—Our Normal School conducted on Saturday, has enrolld nearly 60 Ladies & from this School & from my own have been selected nearly all the teachers for the new arrangement excepting two of the old male principals who have been retained Upon the one hand all the Ladies are expected to attend the Normal School—& on the other few or none will be accepted as Teachers who have not—or who shall not have connected themselves with the Normal School prior to the time of an Election—by this means we hope to provoke into the Normal ranks many girls of promise the best of whom we shall from time to time select for Instruc-tors

Govr Allston⁹ & many of the dignitaries

of the State have called upon us from time to time & in every instance I think if they have not "distilled almost to a jelly with the Act of Fear" They have experienced a new & in some cases unexampled delight The Govr told us that he Will use his utmost efforts to spread our system into every part of the state

Col Memminger says that *every man* who has seen *my own* Dept is more than pleased—he is *satisfied—convinced* He says that he is proud to say that it is the best school in S. C. It is very frequent to receive applications from parents 200 miles off offering the full tuition of the highest price schools if we will accept their sons so reputable have we become

I think I informd you that the Press & the Pulpit are in our favor—true some of the *old* Dinnies who figured in the antiquated dispensation—of schools are not converted—but content themselves with brilliant yet harmless prophesying, that "it wont last"—"its only an experiment—twill fall through &c"—but when the enemy are slain it is a work of comparative leisure to remove their bodies—we think—

Dr Kenduck of the Baptist Church told me a few evngs since that the experiment is a complete—a signal success—Be it so or not I feel—satisfaction that a great mark has been achieved—that the potential means has been the Creation of a Good School—one in its operation & success which surpassed their conceptions & outstripped & over-ran all their local means of comparison—& my satisfaction is augmented to a joy when reflecting that it is a final achievement for the entire Commonwealth & for all the Sons & Daughters not only of the present but for in-coming generations

In this unremitting & sometimes grievous toil I have been worthily encouraged & sustained by strong & ready hands—& have also been tempted to depression & discouragement by those whose duty it was to give all their energies for my assistance yet notwithstanding—obstacles a great work has been wrought—It is believed by the friends of the enterprise that next Decr will give

our School System to all such well settled parts of the state as may desire it, or as can be benefitted by it—A Normal School can doubtless be established—but a great obstacle is before us—Other cities than *ours* will doubtless desire it—yet Chasn would nurse it more successfully than any other place—But again—the expense of living in Chasn would compel high salaries to Instructors & be most expensive to students for Board &c hence an obstacle—

I suppose the 'Journals' are pd for—I'm told so—if they are not—please inform me—Some errors have been committed—that causes the irregular delivery—I have recd but *one* No since coming to the city—& the cost of some delivd IM informd has been heavy—32 cts each—I proposed to Mr Carter & Co to have them sent in package per Express to him & Id attend to their delivery.

Am sorry for this irregularity as additional subscribers might have been secured—I repeat—if the nos have not been pd for—please inform me & I'll see to it.

Geddings wrote Barnard from Charleston November 29, 1858:

Upon suggesting to Mr. McCarter your desire for 'Articles' & asking if he could furnish me any data for the 'Historical Sketch' he advised me to 'have nothing to do with it' as 'somebody else' in the Board would inevitably be offended—but to let Col Memminger do it, or procure it to be done as the 'other side' would surely take the Author to task for it.

The documents for the Historical parts, are not acceptable [*sic*] to me or to us in Chasⁿ I learn—I've therefore just written to Col M^r now in the Legislature in Columbia (with the advice of a Gent^r of the Bd) to ask Prof Risen of Columbia a friend of our cause—to prepare the Hist^r article he being conversant with the documents of our State History—if he fail to do it I'll see that it is done without fail—the other I'll prepare myself. *But*—it is not probable

they can be got for the Dec Journal—in connection with the Electrotype block

The latter was discreditably done & this P.M. the Artist gave the Sec & myself the assurance that he will furnish a correct & creditable cut in time for the next issue following Dec. If it be indispensable [sic] I can send you the block & plan &c of our House in time for the Dec Journal—by delaying till after Dec some progress may have been made through our Legislature now in session & which we would like to incorporate Yet if you request it I will forward you the block & plan at once.

Geddings went on to tell Barnard that he desired "to change my location pay & position being satisfactory. My alliance with the two NY Ladies now with me being far from happy I inform^d Col M of my feelings some Mo^o ago & he thought one of them would resign soon—but no move is made by this end—All is quiet nor has it been otherwise Mr McCarter remark^d days ago—he thot I bore it philosophically considering my labors, to have such a 'screw loose.' Then Geddings congratulated "the friends & cause of Educational progress"

¹⁰ Barnard was chancellor of the University of Wisconsin from 1859 to 1860 and agent of the Board of Regents of the Normal school fund. He served as president of St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland, 1866-1867, and from 1867 to 1870 he served as the first United States Commissioner of Education and established the foundation on which the United States Bureau of Education (now the United States Office of Education) was organized and developed. It is generally believed, however, that among Barnard's most eminent contributions to American education was that made through *The American Journal of Education*. He also edited the *Connecticut Common School Journal* and the *Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction*.

¹¹ William H. Gist (1807-74) attended South Carolina College at Columbia but in 1827, his senior year, he withdrew, "dissatisfied with boarding conditions." He had long legislative service and was very much interested in education.

that Barnard had accepted the call to Wisconsin.¹⁰

III

In his legislative message in 1859, Governor William H. Gist¹¹ said that the law in relation to the normal school "for the instruction of female teachers" needed modification. He pointed out that the school was completely organized with a good corps of teachers, but there is a difficulty in, inducing pupils from the country to avail themselves of its advantages. The School being at the public expense, and those who come from the country being required to become teachers, parents who have means sufficient to educate their children seem unwilling to send them, from false pride or some other motive; and those whose necessities would induce them to put aside their pride, are unable to board their daughters while going to school. I would, therefore, suggest that provision be made for paying the board of a small number of girls from each District, to be selected by the delegation, or in any other way that may be satisfactory; or if it is thought more advisable, or better calculated to make them feel that they are not depending entirely on the State for their education, a portion of the board might be provided for, and the balance paid by themselves. This arrangement would put the girls in the country more on an equal footing with those in the city, and after a few are educated and return home, others who are able and willing to pay their own board may be induced to avail themselves of the advantages of the School; and thus distribute through the country female teachers to supply all our wants, without being dependent upon the North.

The Legislature in 1859 appointed a committee of six members "to visit the Common and Normal Schools of Charleston" and to report at the next session, when the committee recom-

mended an appropriation for the Normal School.¹²

Some of the letters Barnard received from Geddings, a Northern schoolmaster in the South, gave rather interesting reports of the movement for educational reform in Charleston where he recognized Barnard's influence. From Charleston April 15, 1859, Geddings wrote:

Mr McCarter some days ago read me a letter intimating your intention of visiting Chas^a for a few days during the present month, or during the early part of the month ensuing. Permit me to suggest we have now two noble School Houses—one of the High & Normal—ready for occupancy—(save the furniture which we are expecting daily—it having been shipped from Boston the 31st ult—) & which are to be dedicated formally on the 1st Tuesday or Wednesday of May D.V.,—I am sure it would give great pleasure to all the friends of our good enterprise to have you with them at that time to participate with them in the public exercises of the occasion. Mr Sawyer sub Master of the Brimmer School Boston is the Princ¹ elect—Salary \$2500—and is expected here to engage in services after the Dedication of the House. Mr Fielder of the Bridgham Grammar School Prov^b is appointed to the Principalship of the new Gram^c School to open also early in May. This is one of the noblest Buildings offered for the purposes of Public School instruction—I speak modestly when saying it would be accounted thus even in Boston or N York.

Another costly site has been secured & other incipient steps taken for an additional Gram^c School to be erected at once—so you see that the seed sown by yourself is bearing a harvest in the far off & hitherto uncultivated field of S Carolina. Mr McCarter

¹² See *South Carolina Reports and Resolutions*, for 1859 (p. 570), and for 1860 (pp. 598, 509).

¹³ Geddings seems to have been looking for larger fields of usefulness.

claims that his own Parlor was the theater where those potent agencies were inspired which have wrought for this people such cheering results.

I much regret your impaired health & hope that your intended trip South will be eminently serviceable for its restoration—Until your note to me for an amanuensis I had supposed your family & business transferred to Wisconsin Do you—Have you determined not to go there?

It will be a grief to me as well as to numbers of others if the failure of your health leaves you no choice of duties

May I enquire if you have learned any thing more respecting the School movement in Washington, or do you know of any open doors elsewhere.¹⁴

Sometimes I think I could be easily enticed away from the Palmettoes. I've many sustaining influences here & also many of an opposite character—yet upon one point I am daily exultant—viz the improv^d condition of my personal health—Nevertheless the work I am performing & the results I am an humble agent in achieving do not satisfy entirely—While so manifold & peculiar perplexities attend me—I am hoping however that we are widening our platform & that as years advance we can stand more calmly & labor more efficiently.

IV

One of Barnard's methods of promoting his *American Journal of Education*, in which he probably personally lost much money, appears in some of these letters. William H. Stiles, Speaker of the House of Legislature of Georgia, wrote Barnard from Savannah the first day of 1856, acknowledging receipt of Barnard's circular on the journal, which we now know was among the most eminent efforts in educational journalism ever made in this country. Stiles promised to help Barnard by "my pen subscription or influence . . . should any-

thing of interest strike me as worthy of the pages of your Journal." He had already received the first number, hoped to receive the second, and if the third should appear, "on or before the 1st of March please forward that number to Milledgeville Geo but all others to Savannah." The Legislature of Georgia was then in session, and before it was

the important subject of adopting a system of Common schools. . . . And as there is great interest evinced in that body on the subject of Education it is quite likely that I may succeed in obtaining for you a number of subscribers in this State. At all events you shall have the benefit of what influence I may possess, either personally or officially as Speaker of the House.

Barnard's letter had found Stiles

pouring over Barnard's "National Education in Europe" & "Normal Schools" "Report relating to the Public Schools of Rhode Island" "Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut" "Principles of School Architecture" & "Journal of Education" and I cannot refrain from saying that I should give almost anything if I only had Mr Barnard by my side for a half hour to aid me in preparing a bill for the adoption of a system of Common Schools to our most extensive but for the greater part sparsely settled country

Stiles then went on to put some pointed questions to Barnard, whose educational

systems at the North are doubtless most admirably adapted to your thickly settled & enlightened population—but for our thinly settled & unenlightened region they *seem* too complicated & my effort has been if possible to simplify them—Can I do this & have an efficient system? A superintendent or Commissioner for the State appointed by the Governor—A school committee of

three from each county to be elected by the legal voters—three trustees for each school District—a superintendent for each county a clerk collector & treasurer either appointed by the school Committee for the County or elected by the voters of the respective Districts—I hope to be indispensable [sic]—Can I get along with these *alone* and can I dispense with any of them? As our people are entirely without experience we shall have to give great power & latitude to the Superintendent or Commissioner which might simplify the machinery whilst it would enhance greatly his labors—All the rules & regulations as to the division of the District—Apportionment of the taxes, government of the school, & he might lay down as rules which would obviate the necessity of a whole code of law on the subject. What think you of these matters?

The laying out of the School Districts I apprehend will be a most difficult undertaking with us. It is to be done not geographically only but according to the number of scholars & the ability of their parents to respond to taxation I believe Can you furnish me with any suggestions which may tend to facilitate this matter?

We shall probably devote about \$100,000 of the proceeds of our State Rail Road to Education but the balance will have to be obtained by taxation—It occurred to me at first that I would propose a bill simply for the Appointment of a Superintendent for the State & let him go thro the State lecturing on the subject of Education while he ascertained the condition of the population the number of children—& the advantages they possessed or the disadvantages they labored under as to education & to report not only this information but suggest a system of schools to a future legislature—but I have subsequently thought that as this labor would occupy the Superintendent several years & he might not furnish much more information than we now have, we might as well set the system in operation at once—& amend or add to afterwards as necessities might require.

What do you think on this point? I think of recommending also a Normal School. How many teachers would be requisite for such an one as we should have & what the annual expense of the establishment, independent of the building?

I hope you will excuse the very great liberty I have taken in propounding all these inquiries. I have ventured to do so only upon the very deep interest you feel in the cause of education & which is not I know limited by any State bounds—

You perceive from my inquiries we are groping in the dark here and any light which your enlarged experience will enable you to throw upon the same will be most gratefully received. We have now a recess of the legislature until the 14th of this month—if you write immediately please direct to this place—if so as to reach me after the 14th at Milledgeville. I shall deem it however an especial favor if you can write at once—as our bill on education is assigned to the 16th Inst & it will of course be necessary for me to have the information before.¹⁴

Christopher Gustavus Memminger¹⁵ wrote Barnard from his summer home at Flat Rock, North Carolina, August 1, 1856, in reply to a letter from Barnard July 24. Memminger was delighted

to learn the interest you take in our efforts to set our State aright in the proper road

¹⁴ Stiles added as footnote: "If you will send me two or three more of your circulars it will aid me in calling attention to your Journal."

¹⁵ Memminger was born in Germany. He came to this country at an early age and attended the Orphan House of Charleston which had been established by the city council in 1790 "for the purpose of supporting and educating orphan children, and those of poor, distressed, or disabled parents who are unable to support and maintain them." He was graduated at South Carolina College in 1819, and served as a member of the board of commissioners of schools in Charleston and as a member of the board of trustees of South Carolina College for more than thirty years.

to general education. So far from any harm resulting to us from any thing you would say, it would be just the reverse. Although our people are much excited by the continual irritation produced by the taunts and abuse of many Northern newspapers and Politicians, yet they continue to estimate aright the benefits conferred upon our whole people by such men as yourself. If in any thing you write, you could strengthen our argument in favor of Common Schools over Schools confined to the Poor, you would assist our cause. There is considerable opposition to our plans, and we are desirous of forming a proper public opinion. If I am not mistaken you are writing or have lately written a Book with your own observations on European systems of education. If so, I would be very happy to see a copy before our Legislature meets in December. I would have been glad to send you a Copy of the Speech I delivered on 4 July, printed in the Charleston Courier of about 15 July, but up here I cannot at this moment procure a copy.

Reference was to the significant and effective speech Memminger had made July 4, 1856, at the inauguration of the public schools of Charleston, which marked the beginning of an important change in the educational policy of that city—from the "pauper" to the "public" system. In that speech he had severely attacked the law of 1811 of South Carolina which gave preference to the poor: "This enactment has, in my opinion, been the cause of the failure of the system. The fund originally provided was small, and was entirely absorbed by the preferred class. The rich were thus excluded, and, the benefit being confined to the poor, the schools degenerated into pauper schools, and pupils and teachers descended to the grade at which they are now found throughout the state." Mem-

minger also said that no one would "accept an education which could only be granted as a charity." And no one wished to "stigmatize" himself by "declaration of pauperism. . . . It is vain to look for substantial improvement, while at the entrance of the school, a confession of pauperism must be made. . . . Let it be required that no young man shall find entrance into the South Carolina College, but upon a declaration that his parents are unable to educate him. Such a regulation would be fatal to its existence—its whole tone and character would be destroyed; and if enough of those who could receive such a bounty, could be found to secure the continuance of the college, they would soon lose consideration in the community, and professors and students would descend by the same steps which the free schools of the state have taken. . . ." The new system in Charleston would be open to all classes without distinction, he said, "that

there shall be no discrimination between rich and poor."¹⁶

From Selma, Alabama, A. W. Richardson wrote to Barnard March 23, 1857:

Being one of the few professional teachers of Alabama whose locks have grown grey in the service, I feel a strong desire to become a subscriber for your ably-conducted, and most excellent Journal. I have read, with great satisfaction, a few stray numbers of your noble quarterly. Not having at hand, a copy of your advertisement, I do not know that I am right in addressing you on this subject. If in error, you will pardon me.

What I desire to know is the cost (postage included) of the volume or volumes for 1857, together with that of the back numbers, (bound). An early reply will confer upon me a special favor.

Fearing lest our Secretary may have failed to discharge that duty, I send a copy of the "Minutes of the Convention, which formed the Alabama Educational Association." The paper read by Dr. Landon C. Garland,¹⁷ the President of our state University—on the "Mission of Colleges," is an able document, and worthy an extended notice.

The cause of Education is inspiring renewed interest among our people. They are becoming pretty thoroughly convinced that we must either build up schools and colleges, or expend an *equal*, if not a much *greater amount* in erecting jails and penitentiaries. Leviathan must, in some way, be *subdued*. If we cannot transform him into a *national creature*, then, must chains and a prisonhouse restrain the native malignity of his disposition.

Strange it is, but true, that, with us, there is a much more lively interest felt in the cause of female education, than in the education of young men. Is not this an effort in the *right direction?* Educate the girls—*thoroughly educate them*—and the boys in order to render themselves respect-

¹⁶ The substance of the address by Memminger in Charleston in 1856 may be found in Barnard's *The American Journal of Education*, II, 553-56. In philosophy and tone this address resembles the powerful and dramatic speech made by Thaddeus Stevens in the Legislature of Pennsylvania two decades earlier when he described a proposed school law for that state as "An act for branding and marking the poor, so that they may be known from the rich and the proud." His speech helped mightily to save the public school system of Pennsylvania from "ignominious defeat."

¹⁷ Garland (1810-1895) was born in Virginia and was educated at Hampden-Sydney College where he was graduated in 1829. He served as professor in Washington College and also in Randolph-Macon College in which he served as president from 1836 to 1846. He went to the University of Alabama in 1847 and served as its president from 1855 to 1865. From 1867 to 1875 he was a member of the faculty of the University of Mississippi. He became the first chancellor of Vanderbilt University in 1875, resigning that position in 1893 on account of ill health.

able in their eyes, will find means to educate themselves. Let the future mothers be educated, and the chances are that their children will not be neglected.

This thought, it occurs to me, is worthy of elaboration: You may possibly at a subsequent period, receive some reflections, based upon these propositions. And now, my Dear Sir, permit me to wish you and your excellent Journal the most eminent success, . . .

Ashbel Smith¹⁸ wrote Barnard July 6, 1858, from his plantation "Evergreen" in Harris County, Texas, about a school in Houston:

It is an excellent building; large, substantial, being of good brick; and I think commodious, being fashioned in a measure after some of your model schoolhouses. By estimate it will seat about 300 or 400 pupils, and is provided with the necessary additional rooms. The cost has been about \$25,000 which sum has been mostly spent on the edifice. It is indeed a noble structure.

Next comes the business of its furniture. I have given the Trustees your School architecture and some nos. of your Journal of Education. Some of our merchants, who are also trustees of the school will go to the North in a short time, and will there I presume make the purchases of the furniture.

Lastly comes the great difficulty of the whole matter; it is in the selection of the personnel of the government and instruction. There are among us persons qualified

for the office of Head Master, or they could easily so make themselves; but they have other engrossing and lucrative pursuits. There is yet no surplus among us of accomplished scholars seeking employment. In former times we should have turned probably to your section of the Union and sought there for some capable scholar for the Head Mastership; but the miserable abolition fanaticism renders it advisable for us not to apply to that quarter, but restricts us to the slave-holding states. In this conjuncture the Trustees have elected me as Superintendent to organize the Instruction, contrary to my expressed wishes; my management for a longer or shorter period is of course contemplated. What, my dear Barnard ought I to do?

July 17. The above was written several days ago as you may see from the date. I declined the appointment absolutely, definitively. On the very urgent request of several members of the Board of Trustees, I withdrew my letter and have accepted the office of Superintendent for a year. It has been deemed highly important—and in this opinion I coincide—that the Superintendent should be taken from among ourselves. He ought to be acclimated to the physical climate of Texas and also to our social and political institutions. I can remember when the preference would have been given to a teacher from the North; now full confidence could scarcely be felt in any Superintendent recently from that section. My dear Barnard, how deeply to be regretted is the state of feeling that has been engendered by the fanaticism of political antislavery. I beheld with admiration when last at New Haven the facilities now afforded at our old mother Yale, for the acquisition of knowledge, so greatly superior to what you and I enjoyed in our day. But the pest of abolitionism excludes the hundreds, yes the thousands of students from the South, who but for this demon would gladly resort thither for instruction. Why the University of Va numbers its 600 or 700—and Chapel Hill N.C. its 400 or

¹⁸ Smith was born in Hartford, Connecticut, and was graduated in 1824 from Yale where apparently he became acquainted with Barnard. He taught school in Salisbury, North Carolina, from 1824 to 1826, studied medicine and later returned to Salisbury for practice. He went to Texas in 1837, and as a member of the Legislature of that state in 1855 and later was regarded as an energetic leader in the cause of popular education. He was president of the Board of Regents of the University of Texas in 1881 and had much to do with the organization of that institution.

THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

500 students. Had Yale preserved its catholic national faith, it would have had clustering around it thousands when other institutions have their hundreds.—But, I will not weary you with these ungracious topics;—nor do I expect to find you holding the same opinions as myself on these matters.—

I revert to myself and the Houston Academy. The Superintendence or Head Mastership has been accepted by me at a great sacrifice of pecuniary interest and of personal convenience and comfort. I am living at home on my plantation, surrounded by my colts, sheep, pigs, geese, etc, etc, and lastly and chiefly by my servants, in the receipt of an independent income from my crops, receiving and enjoying a good deal of company—yet so far as real care is concerned, I rival the gods of

Epicurus *omnium vocations munorum*. I enjoy this repose—nevertheless I have put myself into the circumscription and confines of a literary institution. You will believe me, Henry, when I tell you it is from a love of the cause of education and a desire to do some good in the world.

It was pointed out¹⁸ that few of Mann's replies to his admirers and correspondents in the South have been located. Unfortunately the same is true of replies to Barnard's admirers and correspondents in the South. Before the whole story of the influence of these two men on education in that section can be told, letters from them to Southerners would be needed. Both Mann and Barnard were prominent figures who kept their papers and letters, whereas many of their correspondents probably did not preserve the letters they received.

¹⁸ Edgar W. Knight, "More Evidence of Horace Mann's Influence in the South," *The Educational Forum*, XII (January, 1948), 168.

MANHOOD

A man's influence depends upon his living up to his ideals insofar as he can. It is hard to fail, but it is worse never to have tried to succeed.

All daring and courage, all iron endurance of misfortune make for a finer, nobler type of manhood.

Only those are fit to live who do not fear to die, and none are fit to die who have shrunk from the joy of life and the duty of life.—On wall of the American Museum of Natural History, New York City

Educational Reconstruction in Land Hesse, Germany

H. C. CHRISTOFFERSON

I

USAFE announced in *Stars and Stripes*, 24 September, 1948, that in 443 flights on the previous day 3,571 tons of supplies had been flown to Berlin. General Lucius D. Clay announced that "We've done about 60% of what we can easily do. Not only can we easily make our promised 4,500 tons daily, but we should be able to maintain Berlin as well as it has ever been since the end of the war."

"The Air Lift" to Berlin, "Operation Vittles," will go down in history as one of the most spectacular achievements of the human race. To avoid war and yet to feed 2,500,000 people for whom the western nations feel some responsibility, thousands of tons of food, fuel, and other necessities are flown to Berlin at tremendous expense, yet at much less cost than war. While one occupying country is not only collecting high reparations and living off the occupied country, but also trying to dominate all of Europe and Asia, the western powers are supplying their own food, paying rent for the buildings used, and trying to rebuild the German and Japanese economies. This is done in the firm belief that industrial prosperity is a foundation for social solidarity, social responsibility and, eventually, for peace and freedom.

Basic to industrial prosperity and social solidarity in the democratic sense is the educational system of a country.

There has been too little information in America about German schools and the educational objectives of Military Government. It shall be the function of this paper (1) to describe briefly the major aspects of the German educational program and (2) to present the new features which Military Government advocates for improving the German schools.

The schools of Germany are a strange mixture of some ultra-democratic ideas dealing with "Lehrer Freiheit" combined with an autocratic, tradition-bound, socially-stratified system which seems in many ways to belong in earlier centuries. Undernourishment combined with inadequate housing, fear for change resulting from Nazi experiences, and a natural tendency to return to the old system with which they are familiar rather than to experiment with new ideas, make traditional practices seem a haven of refuge for German educators.

Probably the most striking contrast between American and German schools is the fact that German secondary schools, "Hoehere Schulen," have not been free, except for a few free scholarships. The charge ranged from 10 to 20 marks per month for public schools to 250 marks per month for boarding schools.

There are two basic kinds of "Hoehere Schulen," the humanistic Gymnasium and the Realgymnasium. Each has a program running for 9 years and be-

ginning with the children at age ten. Children are supposedly admitted on the basis of their ability alone, yet tests have revealed that the selection is inadequate and has been too largely on the basis of ability to pay the tuition charge. Very few students are admitted to a German university who have failed to finish a

TABLE I
School Populations, Hesse, Germany.
February 1948

Age	Volksschule	Mittelschule	Hoehere Schule
6	78,837		
7	84,062		
8	81,022		
9	66,931		
10	62,446	3,303	11,247
11	56,177	3,712	10,667
12	51,001	3,541	9,798
13	39,260	2,085	7,347
14	13,072	1,447	5,768
15	586	1,327	5,294
16			4,116
17			3,604
18			2,882
Total	533,394	15,415	60,117
Percents	87.6%	2.5%	9.9%
Pupils per Teacher	58	36	21
Teachers per 100 Pupils	1.7	2.8	4.8

gymnasium course. Hence most university careers are determined at age ten.

There is a second school called a "Mittelschule," which also charged tuition and which has a six-year course leading largely to careers in business. The trades are recruited largely from the "Volksschule." Table I reveals the strange nature of this overlapping system of schools and shows its divisive effect upon German society. Beginning at age ten children are separated into three

different kinds of schools, so different as to make transfer not simple, and also in most places boys and girls attend different schools.

The following story reveals the divisive and stratifying effect of these parallel schools. A fine looking young man from the seventh year of a Realgymnasium, who came to the office one day, was asked, "Kurt, who are your friends? Are they boys who were with you in the Volksschule, or are they largely boys who are with you now?" He thought a moment and replied essentially, "There is only one boy who was with me in the Volksschule whom I still know well enough to call by name. All my friends are boys who are in my school. You see we have now been together for seven years since I was in the Volksschule."

One case does not prove anything, yet it does point out the possible social division. It is generally admitted by Volksschool children, not by gymnasium children or gymnasium graduates, that the students in these "Hoheren Schulen" consider themselves superior to others and often ridicule them as being only in a "Volksschule."

Note also in table I the great difference in teaching load or the number of teachers per 100 pupils, 1.7 teachers per 100 children in the Volksschule and 4.8 teachers per 100 children in Hoheren Schulen. Not only do the teachers in the Hoheren Schulen have more extensive training, but much lighter teaching loads. Therefore equal educational opportunity for children does not exist. About 10 per cent of the children, under the guise of leadership training have educational opportunities far in excess of

the 90 per cent who do most of the work of Germany.

II

Languages are very important for Germany and consequently their teaching is a major feature of the "Hoehere Schulen." In the "Humanistic Gymnasium" Latin is begun in the first year, age ten, and continued for nine years, six hours per week for the first three years and five hours per week for the last six years. Greek is begun at age twelve and continues five hours per week for seven years. English is required for three hours per week, beginning at age 14 for five years. Hebrew or French, 2 hours per week, is elected during the last three years.* In the Realgymnasium English is begun at age ten and is taught for nine years. French is required for the last four years. Latin study begins at age twelve for seven years, and neither Greek nor Hebrew are offered. Nearly 10% of German school children of Hesse are in Gymnasia and about one-tenth of these are in humanistic Gymnasia. Less than 15% of ten-year old children in February 1948 were in Hoehere Schulen, and less than one-fourth of these will complete the nine-year program of this school. Table 2 reveals the curriculum of the Realgymnasium as specified by the Ministry. Very little deviation from this schedule is permitted, except where equipment or personnel may be lacking, such as a chemistry laboratory or music instructor. Note that a German student does not have 5 or 6 subjects for 24-26 periods per week as our high school students do.

The ten-year olds begin with 10 subjects in which they have lessons 28 periods per week and the 18-year olds have 15 subjects each of which requires from 1 to 6 recitation periods per week for a total of 36 periods per week. Then too, note that once a subject is begun it usually continues each year through to the end of the course.

There are other interesting ways in which German and American schools differ. Even "Volksschulen" in the larger cities have boys and girls in separate buildings. Separate buildings for boys and girls is the general rule for all high schools wherever possible. Since the secondary school pupils vary so greatly in age, ten to nineteen years, classrooms cannot be used freely. Consequently each class stays in its room for all lessons except physics, chemistry, and gymnastics. Teachers go from room to room carrying their books, maps, and other equipment. Almost universally schools in Germany are in session six days per week, and usually from 7:30 or 8:00 A.M. until 12:30 or 1:00 P.M. Each pupil has a lesson each period of the session. Study must be at home in the afternoon and/or evening. That is why the typical German school child has strapped to his back a case for carrying books, a "Schulranzen."

Peculiarly spectacular in comparing schools is the training of teachers. The elementary teachers graduated from an elementary school and then went to a "Pedagogical Institute," something like our Two-Year Normal School, for one to three years. The Gymnasium teacher had to be a University graduate and to take at least one year of internship or

*P. 86 Lehrplan fuer die Hoheren Schulen des Landes Gross Hessen, 25 Nov. 1945.

practice teaching in a regular high school. Here he taught about 6 to 8 hours per week for a year at half pay and in addition to observation and supervision from his supervising teacher, he also took seminar work at the nearest university center. His final examination was composed of written and oral portions, much like our Ph.D. examination, and a teaching demonstration, all given by the Ministry. If he passed, he was given a doctor's degree. German high school teacheres are addressed: Frau Doktor or Herr Doktor. This program is still in use for the teachers for the secondary schools, but has been stepped up considerably in preparing teachers for the elementary schools.

III

The changes which are being proposed by Military Government in this complex system of German schools are all considered by German committees who make recommendations to the Ministry concerning a desirable program. In working out the details of reorganization in Hesse 32 committees have been appointed each composed of from 5 to 25 members, largely teachers or former teachers, principals of schools, and professors in the Universities or Pedagogical Institutes. All voting members of the committees are Germans. Americans participate only in an advisory capacity. There is a committee for each project, for school organization, teacher education, guidance etc. These committees are responsible for planning the curriculum and courses for all schools in Hesse. Military Government has indicated ten general principles to serve as a guide in

rebuilding the schools, and it attempts to supply stimulation and help to the 32 German committees upon whom all details depend. The ten principles follow.

1. "Equal educational opportunity for all" is basic to every democratic society. This does not yet exist in Germany. The child of a poor family has been greatly handicapped. Equal opportunity does not mean equal education for all; only an equal chance for any child, rich or poor, to get an education in so far as the state can reasonably provide it.

2. Tuition, textbooks and necessary school materials shall be free in all educational institutions which are fully supported by public funds, particularly at the compulsory school age level. Previously there was a tuition charge for some schools. Children in these schools had privileges through enriched curriculum, smaller classes, better teachers, better buildings, better equipment. A few free places were theoretically available for bright children of poor families. Children who were awarded these places were sometimes given extra tasks, often of a servile nature, to compensate for the free tuition.

3. Compulsory full time school attendance for all children from age six to fifteen and from there on at least part-time attendance to age 18 is a fundamental principle which had really been in operation on the six to fourteen base and thereafter at least part-time to 18. The extensive system of part-time vocational schools (Berufsschulen) of Germany is a product of this idea. Many of these schools have enrollments like our American schools of several thousand

students, 1/6 of whom come one day each week. These children work four or five days a week as apprentices learning some trade.

4. The education during the compulsory period shall be comprehensive general education. Furthermore the elementary schools and secondary schools

have little interest in political matters. This lack of interest and complete willingness to let someone else take care of the politics must clearly be the fault of the schools, largely of the secondary schools. These schools have been better at developing followers and conformists than social and political leaders. The

TABLE 2
Curriculum of a Realgymnasium, Hesse, Germany, 1945-1948

Subject	Hours per week for each year (Year—hours)									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
Year in school										
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
German	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	37
History	—	1	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	18
Government	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	6
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
English	6	6	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	36
French	—	—	—	—	4	4	4	4	4	16
Latin	—	—	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	25
Writing	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	36
Physics	—	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	—	—
Chemistry	—	—	—	—	2	5	5	5	5*	36
Biology	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
Health	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
Art	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	13
Music	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	10
Number hours/week	28	28	31	32	33	35	36	36	36	
Number subjects	10	11	11	12	13	14*	15*	15*	15*	

* Science 5 hours is still 3 different subjects in most schools.

shall be successive levels, not overlapping systems of education. The effect of this principle will be to eliminate some of the overlapping of the "Volksschulen," and the "Hoheren Schulen," which is revealed in table 1. To us it seems imperative, for raising the level of Education for the masses in Germany and to eliminate some of the stratifying effect of parallel schools, to insist on a six-year elementary school for all.

5. All schools shall emphasize Education for civic responsibility and the democratic way of life. Most Germans

German Minister for Education in a recent report referred to the negative qualities which seemed commonly the result of the present schools. In his opinion they were, first, political ignorance and indifference to political matters and, second, the German inclination on the one hand to command and on the other to obey blindly. Great steps in reform are already being proposed by committees on the social studies.

6. Schools shall promote understanding of and respect for other nations. To this end the study of foreign modern

languages is advocated. Proficiency in the language is not the sole or even chief goal for language teaching. Knowledge of the people and of the country using the language is an equally important objective. Many of us doubt the wisdom of allowing any child to spend 4 to 6 hours per week for from 7 to 9 years studying Latin, yet we are not imposing our ideas upon a people who have believed otherwise.

7. Guidance, both educational and vocational, should be provided for all pupils. This should be a comprehensive program. Its absence in the past accounts for the fact that there are over 1,000 doctors of medicine in excess of the number needed, and there are now over 300 qualified certified teachers for the Hoehere Schulen of Hesse who have no positions.

8. A health program based on instruction in Biology, Hygiene and health will be made more effective as rapidly as space becomes available.

9. All teachers in Germany, Volks-schule and Hoehere Schule, shall have training in a university or in an institution of University rank.

10. The final principle deals with the administration of the Educational system and recommends participation by the people in the reform and organization as well as in the administration of the schools. In other words, we recommend less state control, more local control, yet, greater state financing and less local financing of schools.

The schools of Germany are extremely centralized. The Minister of Education appoints teachers in all schools supported from public funds and can

remove them for cause. He also has supervision of these schools, frequently sends out directives about various problems or aspects of school life, both examines and certifies all teachers, issues outlines for the contents of all courses taught and approves the budget for each school. All the work done by 32 committees of the "Landesschulbeirat" must be approved by him before published or effective. There are no local school boards in Germany like ours. In each Kreis (county) there is a supervisor for the elementary schools somewhat like our county superintendent. There are 49 "Kreise" in Hesse which are divided into three districts or "Regierungsbezirke," to form convenient administrative units. The secondary schools are divided into 17 districts for some administrative purposes, but all control of these is retained in the office of the Minister of Education, (Ministerium fuer Kultus und Unterricht—Ministry for Religion and Education).

This is necessarily a sketchy picture of German schools and of the reconstruction of German Education. Many pages have been omitted such as the story of denazification, the extensive youth program, the plan for religious education, the extensive work of the Cultural Exchange Branch, the preparation of textbooks in each subject for each grade and the whole story of higher education. For Land Hesse there are five full-time American employees in the General Education Branch to direct the reconstruction of the elementary, secondary, vocational and teacher-education schools. The German committees for the most part realize that they have a remarkable

opportunity to modernize the educational program for the new Germany. It is a task that requires patience, social perspective, and cooperative work on a host of details, and will continue for many years.

It is interesting to note, according to a recent article in School and Society that through the Langevin Plan, France too is utilizing the upheaval of the war to reconstruct its schools. Free tuition in all state supported schools during the compulsory school ages, which are six to eighteen, and a six-year elementary school are parallel and fundamental features.

The entire program of German education is complex. Often interested Americans become very much concerned when they have partial or inaccurate information concerning the program. Much harm has been done to America's program of help to Germans in the re-study of their problems by would-be friends who thus become alarmed and publish their erroneous fears as news and facts. Such fears and doubts and criticisms or suggestions should be sent, not to the public as news, but to the directors of the program for their consideration and for correction or verification. It is easy

yet harmful to be an armchair critic, but difficult to do constructive work in this educational frontier where two conflicting ideologies clash.

The Education and Cultural Relations Division of the U. S. Military Government in Germany is working to help Germans design their own educational program for a new Germany, in spite of the ruins of a crushed economy, by using as many traditions and former practices as are valuable and functional, and yet, upon the basis of research and careful study, to reject some features which may not contribute toward the newer goals for the new Germany. Then too, a continuous effort is being made to do this democratically by guidance and discussion, not by directive; by cooperation, not by imposition. We wish to help make a new Germany designed for peace, not war; for competent industry, yet not domination; for social unity, security, and cooperation; not lockstep totalitarianism, nor worship of tradition, nor the protection of the vested interests of a privileged few. We believe in education of the masses, not merely of a selected 10% of the population, as the best guarantee for the peace and prosperity of any country.

One learns to be a good flute-player by playing the flute. One also learns to be a poor flute-player by playing the flute.—SOCRATES

Lines

Written before a Lecture on Emerson

GERHARD FRIEDRICH

Nail the great truths again into our heaven,
From which they have been fading one by one.
Each word of yours, as with the strength of seven,
Will conquer us with light as does the sun.

"God is (not was) and stronger than a city
Is he who owns the universal fact.
Thou shalt not waste thy days in pride or pity,
When living only is the total act.

But know: the one, eternal revelation
Comes not to cowards. Thou wilt never find
Thy private peace in tedious imitation,
But in the inner sanctum of the mind.

Be thou a bold, a self-reliant lover,
The pole and pivot of thy maker's plan.
This nonconforming truth thou shalt discover
In each and all: I also am a man.

Thou art predestined to a high adventure.
Return into thyself, attempt, and trust.
Beyond consistency and fear of censure,
The Over-Soul will greet thee from the dust.

And thou shalt tap the wisdom of the ages
And trace the music of the seraphim.
Lo! every problem turns for the courageous
Into a friendship song, a concord hymn."

Some Basic Ideas Underlying the Formation of the Chinese Educational System

TAO-CHIN CH'ANG

I

EDUCATION is the most gigantic enterprise of the modern nation. This is especially true with China. So far as historical record goes formal school system existed in China as early as 1034 B.C. The traditional system gave way to modern schools only under the impact of a violent Sturm und Drang from the western world, and it was done with reluctance. Beginning in the year 1862, it took forty years to have the first modernized school system established.

From its very beginning this newly "adopted" institution has been charged with an extremely complicated function: to modernize China economically, politically, and socially. It is obvious that the task set before our educators is more than doubled as compared with that of our western colleagues. While in Western countries economic development together with social and political changes has contributed to the making of the present school system, China's school is expected to pave the way for industrialization and socio-political transformation at the same time. In about fully half a century her teachers have laboured for the realization of this remote but nevertheless urgent goal. Unfortunately it was interrupted time and again, first by the reactionaries in the Manchu Dynasty, next by the Japanese invasion, and

lastly by a continuous civil strife. All these factors accounted for partly the slow progress of her modern educational development.

In the United States local initiative is considered as an essential feature of any healthy educational development. China is predominantly an agricultural country. It is estimated that about eighty per cent of her population live in rural areas. Now that farm folks are generally conservative by nature, they are contented with things as they were. In other words, modern education can hardly take roots in the rural communities without first awakening them from slumbers by, so to speak, an external stimulus. Moreover, since rural districts seldom have the necessary financial resources for maintaining an adequate modern school system, the national government must step in with substantial subsidies. For those who are accustomed to decentralized control of education this might seem too much centralistic, but we can't do otherwise if we are to accelerate the process of social, political, and, above all, industrial evolution through education.

II

By modernization of the Chinese education it does not involve the idea that there is nothing worth while retaining in the old system. On the contrary, some

of the traditional ideas are just as much instructive and inspirational as when they were first brought into vogue. Confucius enunciated and himself practiced the well-known motto "Education suffers no discrimination of any kind." His saying has influenced our educational practice for many generations and is still alive. No wonder, foreigners are often puzzled by the fact that they found no stratified social classes here, while a more or less rigid caste system exists in almost all the nations in the Orient, Japan not excepted.

It is true that our new school system was first copied from that of the Japanese, which was in turn modelled after that of the French original. But the Chinese Copy differed from both of them in that it was made into a single track system, instead of two tracks catering to the needs of the masses and the privileged classes separately, such as we usually found in countries with dual systems. The national school system underwent a thorough-going modification in 1922, with the result that so-called 6:3:3 Plan was established. The chief merit of the new plan is that it is, perhaps, more in harmony with our traditional ideal above-mentioned.

In China we have no preparatory school admitting pupils of elementary school age to prepare them for college matriculation. The public elementary schools accommodate pupils from all social levels. It is quite a familiar scene to find the child of a high-rank official,

say, a minister, and the son of a tenant peasant sit side by side on the same bench. But, to be frank, mere lofty ideal does not of necessity make education accessible to all. Industrial backwardness is the chief cause that retards the equalization of educational opportunity, which is explicitly insured to all citizens by the newly proclaimed Constitution of the Republic of China.

Emerged from an eight-years struggle of life-and-death, China found herself utterly devastated and almost exhausted. Many regions were left without a single school-building, and numerous children could not be accommodated. What can we do before such stern realities?

Let us begin with the present-day situation. The six-grade elementary school is the foundation of the entire school system. Its first four grades have been made compulsory for all children of school age by law, to be extended to six years later on. According to the latest statistics available, there are 269,937 elementary schools with 21,831,898 pupils;¹ 5,892 schools of the secondary level, including vocational and normal schools, with 1,878,523 students;² and 185 institutions of higher learning, with 129,336 students.³ Compared with her total population which amounts to 455,900,648 (Official Census of the Ministry of Interior released in January 1947), and in view of the magnitude of her reconstruction work, it is far from sufficient to prepare herself for an all-out on-slaught to speed up the rate of modernization in its various aspects.

It is crystal clear that the financial conditions in general and shortage of teaching personnel, housing, equipment

¹ Statistics of Elementary Schools 1945.

² Statistics of Secondary Schools 1946.

³ Statistics of Universities, Colleges and Technical Schools 1946. In 1947, the number of institutions was 207.

and the like would not permit her to multiply the number of schools at will. Perhaps, expert service from specialists of other countries can be secured to work in collaboration with our home-trained professional men and women, but the rank and file must be trained en masse here and now. Moreover, persons of all age-groups, including the hitherto forgotten illiterate must be enlightened through some form of education, to enable them to think and act in a way becoming a free citizen in a democratic nation.

III

Ever since the founding of the Republic in 1912 both governmental and voluntary agencies have managed to provide some form of education outside the formal school system for all, irrespective of age, sex or occupation. Under the category of "social education" is included—every organized effort at the intellectual, civic, vocational and physical advancement of the masses. It takes the form of part-time people's school for the extension of literacy, short-term vocational course for young apprentice, supervised public playground, people's educational centres and many others. The last-named is an institution of manifold educational activities with auditorium, reading-room, exhibition halls for natural history, science and technology, fine arts, health work, athletic fields and sometimes, also miniature botanical and zoological gardens.

By means of social education in its various forms a considerable number of youth and adult are enabled to partake of the benefits of modern education though in a limited measure only. How-

ever, social education still leaves much to be desired. As a whole, it is not well organized and co-ordinated. Its work has been sporadic and unsystematic.

In 1938 while the war of resistance against Japan was on its full sway, trained personnel in various fields of work were in dire need, the writer suggested in an article entitled "A Comprehensive Plan of Citizen Training for New China," published in *China Educational Review*, September, 1938, that all formal schools and all forms of social education should be formed into an organic whole. Following is an short explanation of my proposal.

Before entering into the plan itself, a few words about its underlying purpose seem to be necessary. "Education for All" is the highest principle in the formation of the national educational system. It is to enable all the youth to lead common, intimate lives during a certain period of time, so as to eliminate every possible misunderstanding due to differences in birth, region, race, occupation, religion, etc. and form an unified national community. If we can keep all the youth full-time in school until eighteen or twenty years of age, so much the better. Since that is impossible within foreseeable time, we have to resort to other tangible devices, which is illustrated in the diagram on the next page.

It is clearly shown that parallel to the formal school system which includes elementary school, lower and upper middle school and other schools of equal standing, there is the system of social education. Between these two systems, there are three circles each representing a definite age-group. All the young people

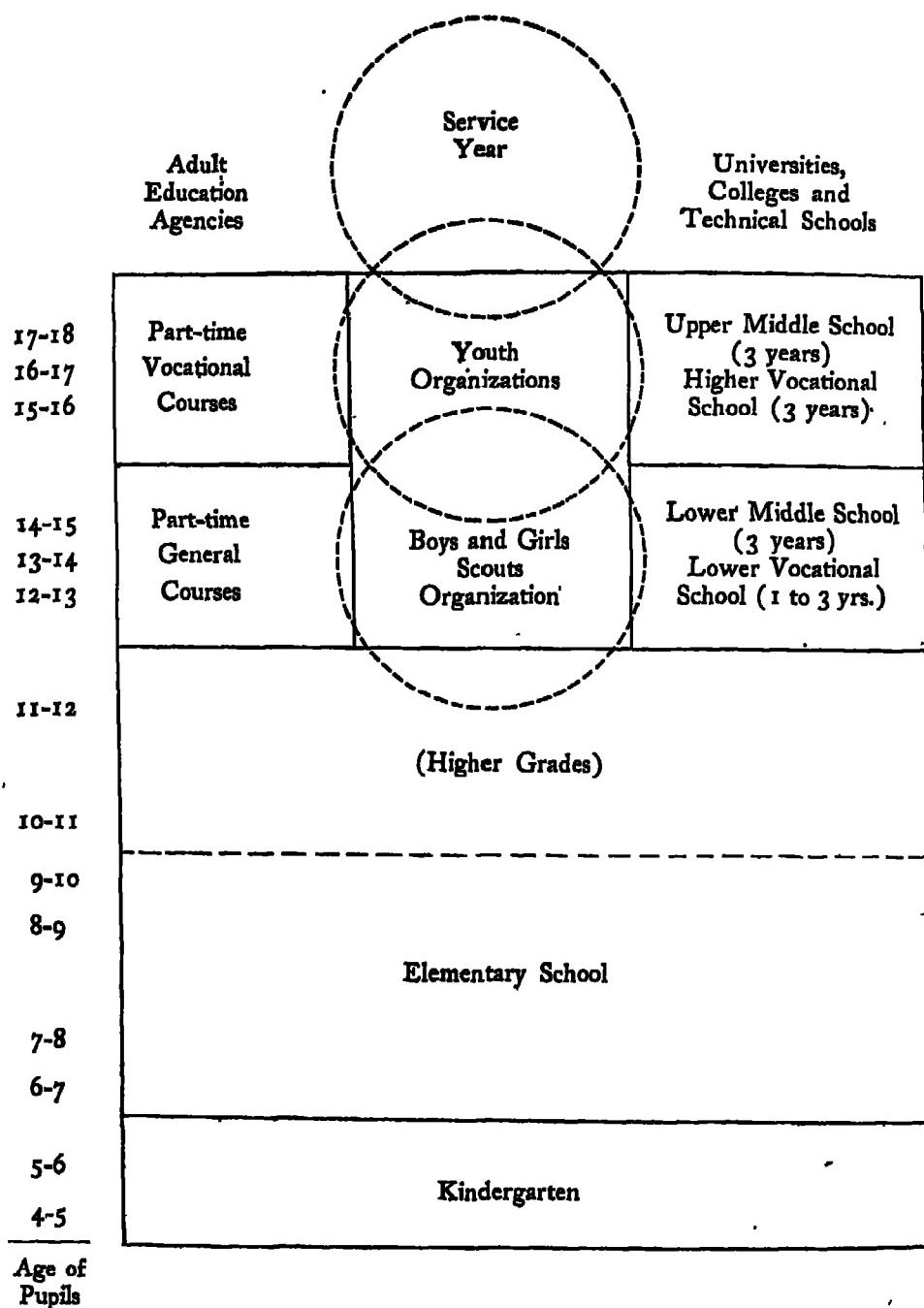


DIAGRAM OF THE CHINESE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM SHOWING THE PLACE OF THE ALL-EMBRACING ORGANIZATIONS ON THREE LEVELS

whether the high school students or apprentice workers are expected to participate in one of the organizations in accordance with his age: 13-15 as boy or girl scouts, 16-18 as member of some youth organization, 19-20 to join the service corps for one year. Throughout these three stages civic and physical training are among the constants, while each has its particular emphasis; for example, vocational training is to be the core of training in the second stage. The service year is divided between labour service and military training.

There is much controversy as to the desirability of universal military training. But if we regard it as an integral part of educational system instead of a segment of the war machine, the situation will be clarified in favour of the positive argument.

According to incomplete statistics of 1945, about 62 per cent of the children aged from 6 to 12 inclusive were enrolled in elementary schools. How and when can the remaining 38 per cent be added to the enrollment? Besides, young people aged 13 and over, who have had no school education is much more numerous. This state of affairs will be improved, but it takes time. As for those who are enrolled now, most of them will probably not stay in school more than four years. Hence it is obvious that within a certain period of time, say twenty years, the average length of

school life for the majority of the people is too short to make the necessary civic training effective. The service year offers a full year to those under-privileged in education to make up their training in literacy, civic duties, vocational skills and so on, alongside with military preparation. Besides, it also offers an excellent opportunity to have all youth of the same age-group brought together on equal footing, which is the most effective means in developing like-mindedness and cultivating mutual understanding, thereby class-consciousness and hatred—basic to the present-day social unrest—might be alleviated.

To sum up: the writer does not claim any originality in this scheme as expounded in the foregoing paragraphs. In fact, various forms of social education, including boy scouts and other organizations of youth, have long been in existence here. What we stand in need is to make use of all the resources at our disposal in order to (a) insure to all the right to equal opportunity of education, and (b) bring together all youth up in a harmonious classless society. Although we can't give them all the same education, we must make education of one form or another available to everyone. Most important of all, they must be given ample time and place so that they can learn how to understand and help each other. This is also an essential step toward international understanding.

Peace is a condition . . . positive, not negative, in which war is affirmatively prevented by the dynamic and purposeful creation of a human and social order as between the peoples of the world.—ARCHIBALD MACLEISH

Sonnet to Youth

JACOB C. SOLOVAY

Yes, listen to your elders and be wise:
They know the alphabet from A to Z,
That rain must fall to earth, that airplanes rise,
That autumn leaves are cast off by the tree.
They hold the wisdom garnered from the ages,
Their arms are bent, the thumbs are pointed inward
To where the righteous fire steadily rages,
While other pathways flamingly go sinward.

Look at your postured elders and reflect.
The pedestals reveal a mighty crack
Which even your youthful vision can detect;
But do not falter, do not turn your back.
In you the strength and wisdom will be found
To keep the gods from crashing to the ground.

The Future of Teacher Internship

CLIFFORD L. BISHOP

I

WHAT is the future of internship for teachers? This question has been asked by numerous persons who have struggled to improve teacher education through advocating a more thorough integration of theory and practice. They realize that internship has definite values but has its limitations due to the complicated organization which it must have for success as well as the great expense in providing an adequate program.

As part of a recent study of internship for teachers,¹ this question was asked of thirty-six specialists in teacher education. The same question was asked of a group of one hundred seven school supervisors with experience in internship, and a group of fifty-nine representatives of colleges and universities that had participated in internship for teachers. Eighty-three per cent of the institutions, ninety-eight per cent of the school supervisors and one hundred per cent of the specialists in teacher education stated that they believed it possible to overcome the criticisms and limitations of internship through careful planning, administration, supervision regulations, and control. They believed that internship for teachers has a worth-while future.

II

The Improvement of Present Programs of Internship

The institutions, which represent most of the various types involved in the education of teachers throughout the United States, were asked what they proposed to do to correct the weaknesses of their present programs of internship for teachers. These institutions compose the group most responsible for planning the administration of the program, and for this reason, the comments of this group were carefully scrutinized. A few of the comments are listed for this purpose.

1. The limitations of internship are being overcome by careful supervision and friendly contacts with the boards.
2. I am of divided opinion even in my own mind as to how the bad features can be eliminated without a direct effect upon the desirable features. The freedom enjoyed at present and the wholehearted cooperation of the teachers involved is a pleasant association for us and the students. (This respondent stated in the next question that he believed the present limitations would be no handicap to the future of internship).
3. Internship can be improved by allotting more time and more credit for internship; by blocking other required courses; by having the supervisory (local) teacher realize that she is a member of the Teacher Training Staff and is responsible to the institution in a measure; by the teacher training department having a voice in the selection of the supervisory teacher.
4. We are evolving something better all

¹ Clifford L. Bishop, *Participation of Colleges and Universities in Programs of Internship Teaching*. A Doctor's dissertation. University of Colorado, 1947.

the while; our main handicaps are wanting for travel and personnel.

5. Internship can be improved by convincing administrators of the need for adjustments.

6. Internship will not improve until we have a sufficient number of superior teachers.

7. A joint planning board of college and representative sponor or critic teachers might do much to solve common problems.

8. Internship will improve through a more co-operatively developed series of professional relationships with the officials of the participating schools.

9. Improvement will result from a larger staff.

10. We need more funds with which to work with schools in the field, as summer camps, workshops, etc.

11. More personnel is needed for the operation of the program; free the so-called academic faculty members from some campus duties so they can visit schools in the field.

12. By planning for expenses and establishing the program over a few years' time, the main difficulties will iron themselves out, and a better teacher is the result.

13. Closer contacts between the college teachers and the schools are needed.

14. Internship would improve if more time was allowed for the college co-ordinator to do this work and more money was provided for the directing teachers.

15. We just need a little more time and personnel.

16. Internship would improve through better salaries to attract qualified people in high school teaching positions; recognition of the supervisory teachers by the college in a way to give status to the work she does with the intern.

17. It will take a long time to improve internship. Continued improvement of the local public school situation can normally be expected. Continuity in the office of the

college co-ordinator is essential so that he would become thoroughly familiar with the problems and personnel of the public schools. Also continued academic and financial strengthening of the university will lead to the possibility of increased specialization in the education department, permitting one staff member to devote an increased proportion of his time to directing the internship program.

18. Providing a larger amount of credit for internship will help.

19. Improvement of internship would come with the payment of the intern by the state school authorities on the theory that training of competent professionals is a proper charge on economic leases of that profession.

20. More teachers and more funds are needed.

21. We can have a longer time through planning, etc. The other factors are the result of general situations over which school administrators have little influence.

22. Internship will improve through:
(1) the engagement of teachers who will be assigned to interns; (2) less and less regulation and supervision for the master teacher.

23. Better organization would improve our program.

24. Improvement of internship is a selling job; it takes time which at present is at a premium.

25. The greatest problem is to find schools with the best educative practices.

26. More funds for additional personnel, travel, and aid to internship centers would enable us to overcome most of these defects.

27. Internship could be improved by partially paying intern teachers in order to have more control over them; by employment of a regular supervisor to give more time to trainees.

28. Classes and subjects should be blocked as to time to provide for a full-time internship program without interfering with the work of other programs.

These are some of the solutions to problems in the present programs of internship. Analysis shows that according to this group improvement will come through: (1) careful supervision; (2) friendly co-operation of all groups and individuals; (3) a longer time free from other responsibilities; (4) blocking of other required courses; (5) responsible and efficient co-operating teachers; (6) sufficient staff and personnel; (7) sufficient funds; (8) better administration; (9) better salaries for school personnel; (10) improvement of the co-operating schools; (11) more credit for internship; (12) payment of interns; (13) better public relations, and (14) more aid to internship centers.

These suggestions are not required for the improvement of all programs of internship; however, most of the programs today have one or more problems that could be remedied if the plan devised would incorporate these elements. These suggestions, therefore, would be very worth while if considered by those who would care to improve their programs of internship and by those who are interested in establishing such a program.

III

The Improvement of Internship as Suggested by the School Supervisors

The supervising teachers, principals, and superintendents, who have had experience with internship, should have definite ideas regarding how to improve internship. Ninety-eight per cent of this group (or one hundred four of the one hundred six responding) felt that internship could be improved through careful

consideration of the following which are the results of an analysis of their statements:

1. Experience should be provided for the intern at various levels.
2. Experience should be varied.
3. Selection and placement of interns deserves careful consideration.
4. Better subject matter knowledge must be provided previous to internship.
5. A longer period of observation must be provided.
6. More practical discussions should be a part of internship.
7. A wholesome teaching philosophy should be instilled in the young teacher.
8. More specific instructions should go to the co-operating teacher and the intern.
9. The intern should be oriented well with the community.
10. A co-operative understanding of objectives of internship should be the result of co-operative planning and work.
11. The better co-operating teachers should be brought at times to the campus as guest instructors.
12. Time should be provided for conferences.
13. Interns should work with children of various ages.
14. All persons involved should be clearly familiar with the purposes and functions of internship.

These suggestions, taken with the ones offered by the institutions, contribute greatly to a better understanding of what can be done to improve internship and to make it a more vital part of teacher preparation.

Future Plans of Present Programs

The first part of this discussion dealt with what is necessary for the improvement of internship. This section deals with what the institutions are planning

to do. A list of a few of the responses provides an excellent insight into the general thought regarding the future plans for existing programs of internship. Many of the characteristics of present plans were described previously. Since the future changes are mostly extensions of what the institutions have done before, it is not necessary to describe the complete plans of any of the individual programs.

Some of the illustrative remarks regarding the future of present internship programs are given.

1. We plan to provide a student teaching internship of eight weeks, correlated with a general methods course. Students will remain on campus eight weeks then go to the co-operating schools for eight weeks. We also hope to employ co-operating teachers on one-third time and to enter into a contractual agreement with co-operative schools which will free co-operating teachers' time within teaching loads to supervise student interns. In-service education will then be given co-operating teachers to train them for this work.

This plan is on paper now; we hope to have it in operation within the next few years.

2. Our job now is to develop our internship with wisdom and courage.

3. Our plan is simply to keep it at a high level by using the right sort of personnel.

4. We are beginning again to conduct regional conferences in which the principal, supervisors, teachers, interns, and the college teachers and administrators work out ways and means of strengthening the program.

5. The college and representative school administrators and critic teachers are now planning on revising the present intern or cadet teaching facilities.

6. Our plans will go forward very likely when three conditions are more appro-

priate: (1) finance—both university and co-operating schools; (2) teacher supply is adequate; (3) school of education recognition to meet five-year requirements are clarified.

7. We will continue to move off campus for laboratory school experience. We will follow in general the plan we now have and hope to perfect it.

8. We meet with the Florida Teacher-Education Council frequently to seek improvement in our program.

9. We only plan to establish and expand our present start in the internship plan. Perhaps we will later add other departments.

10. There is always room for improvement. We hope to train critic teachers better.

11. We plan to combine off-campus and on-campus cadet teaching as a means of improving classroom techniques and providing opportunities for community activities.

12. We would like to extend the program to include other subject fields.

13. We expect to expand our work as the need arises which will probably be next year.

14. Further extension of that in effect at present is our plan.

15. We plan to improve our program. A definite pattern has been decided upon.

IV

Generally speaking the institutions plan to: (1) extend and broaden their programs of internship; and (2) perfect their present plans. To accomplish the last purpose, they propose to combine the facilities of the laboratory school and the off-campus schools, to choose the right type of personnel, plan and carry out the work co-operatively, establish a five-year program of teacher education if possible, and give the co-operating teachers special training. The

representatives of the institutions agree in general that the program can be expanded and can be made more useful and closer to perfection through careful planning and management. That seems to be their proposal for the future.

The supervising teachers, principals and superintendents as well as the jury were asked to discuss freely their ideas regarding what should be the future of teacher internship, its organization, supervision, importance and such other topics as they felt might be helpful on this subject. The answers were quite individualistic. Some of them will be reproduced to illustrate the points of view of each of these two groups.

The Response of the School Supervisors

The school supervisors based their opinions largely on their experience with interns. This group was quite generous in giving their suggestions thus indicating their great interest in internship and the results obtained through it. Only a few of these very worth-while statements can be incorporated.

A Home Economic Teacher. Teacher internship should be improved and expanded. Such training should result in the raising of teacher standards and the development of desirable recognition for the teaching profession.

The teacher who is to be the supervisor in the school should have the intern for a longer observation and planning period previous to the teaching period. She should be given opportunity to know the intern well enough to discover his limitations and abilities. Her services then would be much more worth while.

The intern is rushed into teaching before he is adequately prepared. He discovers how weak he is in subject matter. He feels a need

for time to review subject matter. Colleges should give more attention to the school curriculum during the intern's senior year.

The intern needs supervision while he evaluates the theory he has learned. He needs to be shown how to relate theory to the subject matter to be taught. This evaluating and relating should be done under the guidance of the school supervisor. She has the practical experience so necessary for guiding and directing the intern. (The supervisor should be carefully selected.)

A longer internship would mean more expense for the intern. Why not pay him for his time rather than give him college credit? Internship could then be required before certification.

Another improvement would be for the colleges to eliminate required courses that do not have a relationship to the major field of the intern. Why require 15 hours of foreign language when the intern cannot apply the principles necessary for subject matter teaching in his chosen field? The writer has heard college teachers excuse this weakness with the statement, "He will learn when he starts teaching."

The public has a right to expect the teachers to be well informed as well as capable of teaching in their chosen fields. More knowledge of subject matter and longer observation and planning periods will aid the intern in developing into a capable teacher.

A Social Sciences Teacher. Internship is a fine experience for all involved.

For the young teacher, it is an opportunity to get a year's experience, under the watchful eye of an experienced teacher who understands the practical problems of the classroom.

For the co-operative teacher, the student teacher brings her new fresh experiences in addition to a great deal of enthusiasm.

For the pupils involved, it is often a very happy experience. The intern is young enough to understand many of the problems which the pupils have.

For the school system involved, it has

the opportunity to observe the work of the intern and can select its future teachers with first hand knowledge of what they are getting.

A Primary Teacher. Personally, I think teacher internship is the greatest step toward securing the best possible teachers. Providing that while these future teachers are interning if they should not prove to have the makings of a good teacher they should be advised to change their future plans. Too many students may have "A" marks in their subject matter but are not interested enough in the future of their students, they do not realize the seriousness of the teacher profession. I feel that every teacher has already secured her education and that the boys and girls in school are just getting theirs and much depends on their teachers whether they (the boys and girls) ever graduate from high school.

During the internship the teachers that prove that they like children and realize the importance of their jobs are the ones to be encouraged in this field. It is not the serious minded person that always makes the best teacher. During the short time I have had "cadets," I have had "A" teachers who certainly enjoyed life but while in school they were only interested in what they might be able to do for the children, and in many cases they themselves were not "A" students.

I think internship can be the proving ground for our future teachers. The difficulties for a supervisor are not too great, although it does mean extra work whenever the supervisor does not have a good intern but when she is fortunate in having a good intern her work is somewhat easier.

I feel that the supervisor should never let personal likes enter into the judging of her interns.

Perhaps I have said too much but to me "Teachers" is a very serious topic. I have seen children who are unable to *read* due to poor teachers. This is unfair to our country and to the individual. When is a better time to weed out poor future teach-

ers than at the time of their interning?

A Junior and Senior High-School Principal. I consider internship a necessary part of the student's preliminary training and feel that it becomes most valuable to him when the college in which he has his training: (1) has preliminary contact with the co-operating schools; (2) holds conference with teacher and student; (3) gives ample instruction to the co-operating teacher; and (4) continues close supervision of the intern's work.

It is essential also that the co-operating school: (1) welcomes the intern and makes him feel comfortable; (2) encourages him to participate in all the faculty conferences and activities while he is there; (3) supervises, guides, and directs his teaching and pupil-teacher relationship; and (4) helps to instill in him the ideals of his high calling.

A Superintendent. If internship is going to develop into a worthwhile project, it should be in schools able to give plenty of supervision and assistance to interns. Perhaps definite requirements should be set up to be sure that a sufficient amount of supervision and leadership is given each intern. It has been my experience that every inexperienced teacher employed meets rather serious problems during her first year and in the average school but little help is given to anticipate and prevent these problems from arising. I am sure that all beginners would enter their regular teaching experience with much greater feeling of confidence and security if they had put in one year in a well regulated school. They would by this contact be helped over many difficult spots and would gain rapidly in maturity and confidence.

Another Superintendent. It appears to me that a well organized system of intern teaching would be of great benefit to the educational profession. I should like to see the idea carried out experimentally in various sections of the country. I believe that if we would select only the best schools for intern work and then certify only those students who demonstrated a high degree

of competence, our educational profession would be materially benefitted. Then too, the service that the profession renders would be increased proportionately. It appears to me that it is now too easy to secure a teaching certificate and as a result of the ease with which a certificate can be secured, we have many people in the teaching profession that are not qualified from either an academic or personality point of view.

An Elementary and Junior High School Principal. What one would say on the subject must necessarily be conditioned by the present teacher shortage. If we had an opportunity for selection of teacher candidates a more elaborate program could be formulated than is now possible. Obviously many compromises with a well qualified program would now be made. However, from my limited experience I would want internship planned as follows: (1) well qualified placement personnel; (2) screening of internees to eliminate poor teaching prospects; (3) short term internship (three to six weeks) concentrating on general adjustments to teaching as well as specific teaching process; first emphasis on the former; (4) schedule of adequate compensation for supervisor teachers which would make additional responsibility acceptable to qualified teachers; a. Presupposes careful selection of supervisor teachers; (5) planned placement to stagger contact of internees with pupils so that risk of loss through internee's inadequacies would be minimized.

A High School Principal. I feel strongly that the future improvement of the teaching profession depends upon a development internship program. I am quite sure that the medical profession brought forward many of the criticisms listed above when its own system of internship began. I am sure that we must disregard certain economic questions which might arise as the system of internship becomes an accepted procedure in teacher training. These can be effectively controlled by proper co-operation and administration. All questions relating to

the problem of teacher internship must be accepted, developed, and finally answered on the basis of improving the professional techniques of the teacher.

An Elementary School Teacher. The present internship program seems to me to be the best thing of its kind we have ever had. While far from perfect in its present state, the aims are high and many of the results are good. It is far superior in value to the practice schools connected with colleges, where there are special teachers and equipment for many subjects. In the ordinary elementary school room the regular teacher usually has to teach every subject. The intern teacher gets practical experience in everyday problems in the regulation classroom. This comes first through observation of the work of a competent teacher who explains procedures; then gradually by actual experience which has been carefully planned with the directing teacher. This experience should do one of three things: (1) give the intern teacher the experience necessary for confidence in her own ability; (2) show whether or not this particular grade-level is her field, and if not, give her a chance to apply for a position in one where she is better fitted to do good work; (3) show the intern whether or not she is really qualified to be a teacher. (I have referred to an intern teacher as "she" and "her" because I teach in an elementary school and no men are seeking experience in this field.)

As the internship program continues and develops, I believe that more time will be given in seminars at the expiration of the internship periods to explanation of misunderstood procedures and possibilities of better results from different methods. Also, there should be a chance for the returned interns to give their own opinions of their directing teachers and the techniques they used.

If possible, a few schools might be selected in the state to be used for intern work. The schools should be conducted as any other county or city schools. The fac-

ulty would have to be made up of qualified teachers interested in intern directing. Each teacher could take at least two interns during a year. These would be practical practice schools.

V

The Response of the Jury of Specialists in Teacher Education

The jury was also asked to discuss its ideas on the future of internship and to make recommendations. Following is a statement of each of the responding members of the jury.

1. The big thing that might be done through an internship program is that of bringing the campus and the field (theory plus practice) together—a vital program of teacher education on the campus results.

2. I believe some form of it is coming. I think this is a part of in-service training—retaining a closer relation with students after they enter the field than one in which they are employed after they get a degree.

3. The critical shortage of teachers and the numerous opportunities now available to B.A. graduates make it difficult to retain capable persons for more advanced preparation.

4. The whole structure of teacher training needs fundamental overhauling and internship is one part of this. Educational workers today from beginners to many in key positions are hopelessly under-educated both academically and professionally. The childish ignorance to be noted widely will be cured eventually by placing the training on a par with other professions. Returns both social and material must of course also rise. The internship of adequate and well managed type with accompanying conferences is one of the greatest needs at present.

5. I believe that eventually universities will be providing internship teaching as the integrating core of a fifth year of profes-

sional education and that it will supplement a limited period of student teaching in a campus laboratory school and other less formal experiences and activities with children provided still earlier in the professional curriculum.

6. Internship *should* be a part of every teacher training program. It is highly important.

7. I should like to make two comments:

a. I believe that internship should carry considerable teaching responsibility—fully half to three-fourths that of a regular teacher, preferably three-fourths. But it should be under close supervision. I can't go along with the thinking of some people that it should be a semester or a year which is devoted to marking time. Consequently, I would pay the intern a salary that equals one-half to three-fourths of a beginning teacher's salary. The difference between the internship and the first year of teaching would be largely in the amount of load and the amount of supervision.

b. I am afraid, however, that the prospects of internship in the near future are not good. Boards of education and school administrators are inclined to feel that they are paying for the training of teachers. As a first long step toward internship, I suggest that we try to sell the local school system on the importance of giving the beginning teacher a reduced load and plenty of supervision. Furthermore, the teacher-education institution should carry on a planned program of follow-up. Such a policy would not go as far as internship, but it would accomplish much the same purpose. And I think there would be some prospect of achieving it in the near future.

8. Internship is bound to come as almost universal practice. It can, and should be, financed by states (as medical internships are now financed in some states). The provision of internship experience must come to be considered a normal function of public schools, not a favor bestowed upon a university.

9. I favor an internship program in the

fifth year or even in the last semester of the senior year, if a fifth year is not feasible. Currently, the practical difficulties are great but if teaching can be made more nearly a profession the idea will gain wider acceptance. I have striven toward the goal for several years—and not gotten very far.

10. The trend is in the direction of more internship. If we can insist on a five-year course, it should be done in the fifth year. Under such a situation, the intern should be paid about a half salary. We need a greater budget and a more adequate staff in the college or university. The greatest difficulties lie in sparsely settled areas.

11. Ideally, all teachers should have internship experience. This may call for our going out and getting *large* grants for scholarships for prospective teachers to compensate for part salary while teaching. Also internship will advance teaching far along the road to professional status with the American people.

12. I favor the following: (1) a co-operative arrangement between college or university and the public schools; (2) students should not be paid; this would be one of their courses (professional); (3) the entire program should be supervised by the department of education; (4) the apprentice teaching should be an integral part of the student's professional preparation program.

13. I believe it will expand. Care should be taken to avoid "short cuts" which are temptations in the system. Co-operative planning between institutions and co-operating systems should be the keynote. This can avoid limitations under VI: Education, not exploitation.

14. I would like to see a five-year training program in which students could teach three years between completion of four years and completion of five years, including one year as intern at not less than four-fifths of beginning teacher's salary. There should be no savings by employing interns, as extra supervision (about one supervisor to ten interns) should be provided. The fifth

year should be planned as a part of the whole program, not just something tacked on.

15. It will receive but little attention until teaching becomes a profession and not a trade as C.I.O. and A.F.L. would make it.

16. A big job which has hardly been touched. It has to be done, however.

17. Internship is neither a substitute for the fifth year of advanced study nor does it take place of student teaching. It is an opportunity that will be taken only by the most professionally serious as a means of gaining experience in a school where they could not otherwise be employed without experience or a M.A. degree. It must not be a device for securing cheap teachers, however. Teachers' organizations will oppose this; hence I recommend a minimum beginning salary.

18. Participation of the state department of education in the supervision and placement has been very helpful. Practically all vocational teachers of agriculture in the state have gone through such a system operated cooperatively by the university and the state bureau of Agricultural Education during the last twenty-five years.

19. The teacher internship may well come to resemble the medical internship. The intern should be a help to the school, but not a substitute for a regular teacher. Induction into full-time teaching should be gradual. The guidance of an experienced teacher should always be available.

20. I have long recommended cadet teaching. I think it should have the same role in the professional preparation of teaching as internship in a good hospital now holds in the medical profession. The internship of teachers should prevent incompetent and unworthy persons from entrance into the teaching profession. I feel that this internship should come after the completion of the baccalaureate degree and practice teaching.

21. The undergraduate student teaching internship, with the student teacher spending from eight to twelve weeks in a school

and community seems to be the next step now being planned by many institutions. It may be that such a step will eliminate interest in the graduate internship; I think it will. But in states where the five year pre-service program is maintained, this internship will undoubtedly be in the fifth year.

22. I believe teacher internship should be employed in the student's first year of college to acquaint him with school organization and routine. He should do little else than observe. In the final year he should actually engage in teaching.

23. My ideas are pretty well reflected in the many reactions given to this questionnaire. I'm for the idea!

24. Little, if any, progress should be expected until such time as there is an over-supply of teachers which will permit the raising of standards and the improvement of pre-teaching programs.

25. I believe that the internship idea and practice will expand and improve. The successful pattern to emerge will be quite different from what I might be able to describe now.

In conclusion, internship has an important contribution to make to teacher preparation. The problems are many, the necessary organization is difficult and involved, and the procedure is expensive. Careful, co-operative planning is necessary if the program is to succeed, and according to the three groups studied, internship can be a success and must be a success to broaden the pattern of teacher education and to care for the needs of the prospective teacher. Suggestions have been given by these groups which should help those interested improve their programs of teacher preparation. It is understood that teacher preparation must improve if the teachers are to be prepared to help the children of America to develop and grow wisely in the world of today. The task ahead is not an easy one but a challenging one. It is worthy of careful consideration.

ON EDUCATIONAL CONTROVERSY

Few aspects of controversy over education appear to have chance of early final settlement in our country. Local understandings, pressures, and prejudices determine education's course. As in politics, no one on any side breaks down and confesses defeat, or even consciousness of sin.

All entrance into educational word strife should therefore be with caution. There are advantages often in this arena of life's activities as in others of letting sleeping dogs lie. Those whose convictions are based stubbornly upon purely personal experience are not swayed, those who are merely time-servers do not read, and the inveterate followers of windy "trends" are not worth reaching polemically.—A. M. WITHERS

State Constitutional and Statutory Limitations on College Admission Policies

M. M. CHAMBERS

THERE is a strong academic tradition to the effect that any sort of institution of higher education may choose whom it will admit, on the basis of the academic preparation of the applicants and their apparent capacity to benefit from the type of instruction offered. There is also a somewhat conservative legal doctrine that a privately controlled institution may select or reject on arbitrary bases, being free to contract with just such individuals as it prefers for the purpose of maintaining its own distinctive institutional tone and character.

Opposed to these theories is a long-standing democratic urge, cropping out in various forms at various times in American history, which prompts the concept of higher education as an opportunity properly available on equal terms to all who can make good use of it, without discrimination as to race, sex, religion, or financial or social status; and not as a closely-held special privilege for an *elite corps* or aristocracy, whether the superior advantage be of the intellect, of wealth, of social or political rank, or whatever. Expressions of this concept are found in the charters and statutes governing various types of colleges and universities in America, from colonial days down to the present. A few examples will suffice to illustrate.

Forbidding Religious Discrimination

In the eighteenth century, when the colonial colleges were being founded, a tendency to eschew sectarian discrimination manifested itself. For example, the charter of 1746 of the College of New Jersey (now Princeton University), granted by George II of England, contained a proviso:

... that no person be debarred from any of the privileges of said College on account of any speculative principles of religion; but those of every religious profession have equal privilege and advantage of education in the said College. . . .

This stipulation was made even more eloquent and explicit in the second charter of 1748 for the same institution.

The royal charter of Dartmouth College (1769) contains a very similar specification:

. . . not excluding any Person of any religious denomination whatsoever from free and equal liberty and advantage of Education or from and of the liberties and privileges or immunities of the said College on account of his or their speculative sentiments in Religion and of his or their being of a religious profession different from the said Trustees . . .

Clauses of similar import appear, as might be expected, very frequently in the statutes governing state universities

and colleges; often in the charters of nonsectarian private institutions; and occasionally even in the charters of denominational colleges, as witness the revised charter of 1914 of Wesleyan University:

... no denominational test shall be imposed in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers, or in the admission of students . . .

The practical effect of such prohibitions could, of course, be erroneously estimated. The guess may be hazarded that in the case of Wesleyan it transpires in the normal course of events that heavy proportions of trustees, teachers, and students are adherents of the Methodist denomination, though persons without this religious affiliation are not excluded ostensibly on that ground alone.

Age, Sex, and Race

State universities in the North and West are commonly forbidden to discriminate on the ground of sex or race. For example, a Kansas statute of 1889, re-enacted in 1895, declares: "No person shall be debarred from membership in the university on account of age, race, sex, or religion." Thus coeducation is common in state-supported colleges and universities everywhere except in a few states of the South which maintain separate state colleges for women. In Florida until a generation ago women were rigidly excluded from the University of Florida, but have since been admitted to the graduate departments; men were not admitted to the State College at Tallahassee until the current postwar period, during which practical

considerations have dictated the abandonment of the segregation of the sexes.

Limiting the Academic Barriers

Another Kansas statute will serve very well to illustrate a type enacted in several western states during the half-century from 1865 to 1915, when the tendency to democratize higher education was strong in that region:

... Any person who shall complete a four-year course of study in any high school accredited by the state board of education shall be entitled to admission to the freshman class of the state university . . .

Note that this forbids by implication any higher academic selectivity, such as limiting admissions to applicants who stood in the upper half of their respective high-school classes. Statutes of this kind have never been universal among the states, and some state universities, such as the University of California, have long notably practiced more rigid academic selection than such a statute would permit.

Kansas, Wisconsin, and a number of other midwestern and western states at one time had statutes in force prohibiting any charges for tuition at the state university. Taken in conjunction with the Kansas law heretofore mentioned, this made admission to the state university free to any high school graduate, and by plain implication apparently obligated the university to provide instruction of suitable type and level for all such applicants. If that was in fact the legislative intent, the idea of "college for all who want it" is not as novel or chimerical as is assumed in some quarters.

Requiring Racial Segregation

Diametrically opposite to the prohibitions of racial discrimination commonly found in the North and West, the constitutions and statutes of seventeen states of the Southeast forbid the teaching of persons of the white and Negro races in the same classrooms or in the same institutions; and these states maintain segregated institutions for Negroes. The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States has long been understood to permit the enforcement of segregation only if the facilities afforded the two races separately are substantially equivalent. In practice the segregated state colleges for Negroes are often actually markedly inferior, having inadequate plant and equipment, scanty budgets, markedly low faculty salaries, and no facilities at all for some types of graduate and professional education for which the number of Negro applicants in the state is so small as to make the maintenance of a standard department or school financially impracticable or incongruously expensive.

These hard facts led to the enactment, about two or three decades ago, of statutes in many of the Southeastern states providing appropriations of modest sums out of which the state would undertake to pay the tuition and in some instances certain other expenses of qualified Negro citizens of the state who might pursue graduate or professional studies in any reputable institution outside the state, to which they could gain admission, if the desired courses of study were available to white citizens of the home state in state-supported institu-

tions, but not available to Negro citizens on account of the policy of segregation. Such statutes, though admittedly humane in tendency, obviously did not actually provide equality of opportunity; and in consequence they were considerably discredited ten years ago when both the Maryland Court of Appeals and the Supreme Court of the United States held that a state is obligated to provide equal facilities for higher and professional education to qualified persons of all races, *within its own borders*. These decisions have produced the current somewhat confused situation in which some states are establishing separate professional schools for Negroes under conditions which are both financially fantastic and obviously unlikely to provide equivalency of opportunity in fact; establishment of regional institutions by interstate compacts has been talked of, though it would not meet the requirements of the Constitution as construed by the Supreme Court; and Maryland, without the intervention of any federal court, has admitted qualified Negro applicants to the state university law school.

The latter solution, namely, the admission of qualified Negroes to the graduate and professional departments of the Southern state universities, to pursue courses of instruction not otherwise available to them in the state, has also recently been adopted in isolated cases in Arkansas, Delaware, and Oklahoma; but in general it awaits either state court action after the manner of that of the Maryland Court of Appeals, or actual modification by amendment of the state constitutional and statutory

provisions requiring strict and complete segregation in education at all levels.

Relations Between Law and Practice

Statutes requiring the segregation of the white and Negro races have usually been strictly executed, resulting in complete exclusion of persons of one race from institutions reserved for the other. The situation is different with respect to the statutes forbidding discrimination on racial, religious, or other grounds, especially in their application to institutions under private control. There is a difference between completely excluding all Jewish applicants, for example, and merely excluding Jewish applicants who apply after a "quota" of Jewish applicants have been accepted for the current year. But neither of these practices amounts to the admission of Jewish applicants without discrimination. The prevalence of the "quota" practice, perhaps especially in privately-controlled medical schools, has led to the enactment of a recent New York statute stipulating that no educational institution holding itself out to be nonsectarian and tax-exempt shall discriminate on account of race or religion; and has also produced the 1948 legislation for the establishment of a state university.

The difficulty in enforcing a statutory mandate of non-discrimination, when it runs counter to deep-seated prejudices nurtured by the authorities of private colleges, is very great; and thus far the New York statute seems to be a "dead letter." This circumstance points, as do other elements in the situation, to the conclusion that the extension of state-supported non-discriminatory fa-

cilities is a solution much to be preferred over statutory control of the policies of privately controlled facilities. No matter how excellent a statute may be as a declaration of public policy, it is sometimes extremely difficult to make the law and the practice coincide.

The theory on which non-denominational tax-exempt institutions may be forbidden to discriminate on grounds of race or religion is that the privilege of exemption from taxation is so substantial a benefit that those institutions are actually partaking of public support from public funds; and this being granted, they are therefore subject to the same restraints imposed by the "equal protection of the law" clause of the Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution as are the states and state institutions; and it is agreed that a state can not so discriminate, though the situation is complicated by the fact that the southern states are permitted to discriminate on grounds of race, *provided* they offer at least theoretically equal facilities in segregated institutions. This latter picture is subject to modification, perhaps soon, in view of the forthcoming litigation in several state and federal courts on the question of whether *segregated* facilities can ever be in fact *equivalent* facilities. A negative answer would make educational segregation illegal.

Tendency Against Discrimination

From the foregoing notes it is clear that, with the exception of the provisions for racial segregation in the southern states, American state and federal constitutional and statutory provisions re-

garding college admission policies exhibit a recurring trend toward making higher educational facilities accessible to all on equal terms. There have been periods when emphasis was strongest against religious discrimination, or against academic barriers, or against fees. At times there have been recessions from the most liberal positions regarding academic requisites, as witness the current tendency to be more highly selective, even among state institutions; and regarding fees, as witness the general raising of fees by all types of institutions; but the evidence of the vitality of the principle of equality of opportunity recurs again and again in the legislative history.

A current "straw in the wind" is that part of the 1947 report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights which deals with educational rights and practices. The Committee unanimously adopted the statement that "segregation should be ended as an ultimate goal," and a majority of the Committee, with a minority dissenting, recommended that the federal government stop grants-in-aid for schools to states which practice segregation, and that each state enact a fair educational practice law to prohibit discrimination and segregation in

public schools and colleges. There is apparently no likelihood of immediate legislative action at either the federal or state levels, but the report of the Committee lends strength to the growing sentiment against educational segregation based on race.

Regarding the means of enforcing a public policy against discrimination, with a minimum of state interference in the management of educational institutions, it seems that an essential would be a statute requiring the institutions to preserve records of applications and rejections for a considerable number of years, with a suitable indication of the reasons for the action in each case. With such records accessible, an official commission set up by the state for the purpose could make continuing studies of the general pattern of applications and rejections from year to year, and make special investigations of particular institutions suspected of operating counter to the public policy. Probably such a commission should have power to summon witnesses and records and require testimony under oath; and it should either be empowered to issue "cease and desist" orders against offending institutions, or to sue in court for appropriate orders to enforce the public policy as embodied in the statutes.

There's many a horse which does not know it is thirsty which when led to water finds that it wants to drink.—WILLIAM E. HOCKING

Peace

ALMA C. MAHAN



Let Peace be shaped for all futurity,
A plain and buxom peace without a fear—
Not like some half-forgotten melody,
The music high and sweet—the words not clear.
Since hate has burned the world so deeply
With hunger, death and torturing desire,
Can valiant peace—clean, white, courageous—
Rise like the Phoenix from this purging fire?

The Academic Grab-Bag

CARL BODE

i. *The Silk Purse*

THE PURSE is wide open. The American public is paying its teachers better now than it has ever paid them before. Today, in the Mid-western state where I was born, a male high-school teacher can almost support his family on the money he earns by teaching. If he receives still more generous treatment he may be able to afford summer school instead of working at the post office. He will not even then earn as much as the local journeyman plumber but he will rival the assistant teller at the Merchants and Drovers Bank.

Fred Allen, Fibber McGee and Mollie, and Jack Benny are among those who have plugged on the air for better salaries for teachers. So have an assortment of Congressmen, clubwomen and VIPs. And all honor to them. I would merely like to mention that the opposition is not dead. It is not even keeping completely quiet. In Pasadena, California, for instance, the school board president ran for re-election and announced that he was against higher salaries for teachers unless the money came from the state. He didn't want to overburden the already depressed taxpayers of Pasadena, he declared; they were already enduring all they could. Pasadena is one of the wealthiest cities for its size in the entire nation. That school board president richly deserved defeat and he got it. Ten years ago, even five, he would have been returned to office.

The time will come again, too soon, when the Taxpayers' Leagues will be clamoring for every possible cut in school expenses. Perhaps the younger teachers don't remember the campaigns for "cutting out the frills"—and teachers—during the depression. A glance at some old newspapers is apt to be instructive. The files, for example, of the Chicago *Tribune* for the spring of 1933 report the growing plight of the teachers of Chicago. They had been unpaid for many months—the city owed them and other school employees more than \$30,000,000. Finally in desperation the teachers paraded and demonstrated. In an effort to persuade the banks to accept tax anticipation warrants, teacher delegations visited the leading banks in the Loop. One "troublemaking" delegation marched to the City National Bank and Trust Company where it waited for an hour and then was addressed, from above, by the chairman of the board, General Charles Dawes. The *Tribune* sadly reported that he was heckled, whereupon he shouted, "To hell with the troublemakers," thus pronouncing one of the most famous curses in American education. Incidentally, the Chicago papers, three weeks after this, noted the appointment to the School Board of James B. McCahey, who has since carved his own peculiar niche in our educational history.

At the moment everybody loves the teacher. Let's hope that the affection is permanent and won't wither when

money gets short. The Real Estate Councils and the Business Men's Federations are still potent. These are flush times on the surface but my guess is that salaries will not go up indefinitely. As our population bulges the schoolroom walls, the total needed for educational expenses will continue to rise. Much will go into physical facilities and enlarged plants. The war babies are already crowding the rooms that house the kindergartens and first grades. The students who, according to the President's Commission, should go to college in the next decades are so numerous that one wonders how they will be supported. The state legislatures are apt to balk, and Federal aid to education in the future as in the past is apt to be too little and too late. Endowments for the private universities and colleges are not increasing as they should; on the contrary. For either the private or the state-supported colleges and universities to make ends meet by way of tuition would mean tuition rates that not one student in a hundred could afford.

All along the line, from kindergarten to seminar, the need is certainly for better salaries and also for more facilities. The total cost of education cannot help but increase. The bigger the bite out of the tax dollar, the more grudgingly will the teacher be paid his share. Some of the biggest taxpayers still think that education is their worst enemy, and they are correct. They have a rallying cry, "This isn't the time to raise taxes!" In their eyes, it never is.

2. *So Long, Goldy*

The themes that I got from my

Freshman English classes before the war were seldom very startling. The young fellows and girls were apt to choose subjects like "My Trip to Yellowstone National Park," complete with statistics on daily mileage—"We started at six in the morning and by night time Dad had driven us 567 miles." Or they dealt with "My Most Embarrassing Moment" or "How to Make a Birchbark Canoe." Of course some of the students did better than that from the first day of class and more did better by the time of final exams. It is also true that part of the job of a college teacher of English 1A (MWF 9) consists normally in soft-pedaling the statistical approach to Yellowstone in favor of something more creative. Take it all in all, however, the job of reading freshman themes before the war was not as stimulating as it might have been.

Then came the war, and either war service or war-program teaching for most of us. Then Germany fell and Japan began to crumble. Some millions of young men began to study the provisions of the GI Bill with new and earnest attention. Then the atomic bomb and separation centers ("Better treat 'em like gentlemen now"). And more students by the hundred thousands than anyone had forecast flooded the colleges and universities. By March of 1946 the wave had gotten so high that prospective students were lined up around the edges of the classrooms at the California university where I had just gone to teach. The instructions to us were to give the veterans preference, and, if anyone was absent twice during the first week, to give his seat to the veteran standing

next on the waiting list. And *standing* was the proper word.

The Freshman English classes that year were a genuine joy to teach. The veterans, clearly aware of the time they had to make up, set the pace for the entire student body. There were a few who had signed up for a cheap B.A. but they seldom could stand the competition. The rest of the servicemen worked hard. The great majority seemed to me to do a diligent and mature job. Many of the freshman themes they wrote were striking enough to be remembered. Their very settings were indicative: one I recall was an autobahn near Stuttgart; another, a psychiatric ward in a New Guinea hospital; still another, a "conchie" camp in the Sierras.

Some of these veterans were keen enough as freshmen to equal, in zeal for knowledge, the average pre-war graduate student. The teacher of Freshman English was amazed to find that a chance suggestion of his for further reading had actually been carried out or that throughout an entire semester his recommendations for further study had been acted upon by a substantial minority in each class. It was almost like teaching a graduate course.

It was the students who did it. There they sat, most of them listening intently or answering with considerable animation. Their eyes were alert and bore the marks of time and maturity. So for that matter did many of their foreheads. These were the freshmen with receding hairlines, the gentlemen who were getting a bit thin on top. One of the best—and huskiest—student veterans I had was devoid of everything hirsute except a

blond fuzz around the temples. "Goldy"—short for "Goldilocks"—his seat-mates called him with a grin; but it never wrinkled his bland face.

Well, time has been passing. The crest of the wave has gone on. Freshman classes, I see, have become smaller, and there are fewer sections of English 1A. The cost of living has cut the GI stipend in two. This has meant fewer freshman veterans entering college and also, incidentally, less education for those still enrolled, since many of them must now work at outside jobs. Goldy and his friends were fortunate—they started their higher education early.

Goldy's seat in English 1A is now occupied by a pleasant but downy 18-year old who, because of the war's impact on teaching when he went through high school, is apt to be harder to teach rather than easier to teach than before. It's once again an uphill pull for the instructor. Once again he will have to generate most of the classroom energy.

So long, Goldy.

3. The Higher the Fewer

Because of the present and predicted doubling of college enrollments, faculties are being largely increased. Right now there are more than twice as many teachers in my department as there were before the war. A dozen other departments in the University have crowded four faculty members into every office that two shared before. When the current crop of graduate students is ready for full-time work, the number of teachers will be even greater. So, certainly, will the sum total of ability in the field. A considerable number of candidates

ought to be interested in both teaching and research. Many will no doubt want to write, and having written will naturally want to publish.

And this brings us to an inevitable difficulty. The number of articles to be submitted to the learned journals will in all probability also be about twice as large as it was before the war. The number of rejections will be correspondingly large. It is true of course that some of the learned articles that see print might just as well never have been written. On the other hand most of them add something, potentially at any rate, to our cultural understanding. It is the regrettable fashion to look down on "PMLA scholarship" in my field. It is also easy to point out that, with more articles submitted to the various journals, those accepted are bound to be better than those published before the war.

All the same, this kind of Olympianism is cheap. There will be many more acceptable articles written now, with more people writing them; and there should be places where they could be published. The founding now of new periodicals for the research worker is a real necessity. It demands to be done.

My knowledge of periodicals recently born or about to be born is, I must admit, somewhat limited by my own professional interests. I know of only a few, but I have the feeling that there are not very many others to be known. The excellent response that the *Pacific Spectator* has received is a tribute, of course, to its own merits; but it also illustrates the present need for more media for publication. I've heard of two other quarterlies that are being planned. One, the *Journal of Contemporary Literature*, will be published at the University of Oregon. The other, for students of American civilization, will come from a Mid-western university. There is surely room for more.

What does it add up to? That there is much more research being done now than ever before. Still more is going to be done in the future. To maintain only the present group of learned journals is to raise the standard for publication doubly high and so to prevent a considerable increase in human knowledge. To be content with that situation and with the bland assumption that pre-war publication could well have been halved is perhaps a bit precious.

FEBRUARY

Sulking in her winter clothes
Of tattle tale gray,
The out-of-doors stands irreverently
On what used to be
Last summer's proudly worn plot of green grass—
Like a petulant girl who comes home from the dance
And throws her new party dress on the floor.

—HAL O. KESLER

Academic Freedom: a New Perspective

S. E. Frost, Jr.

THINKING about academic freedom is in grave danger of becoming so narrowed that minor issues are magnified to such proportions as to distract attention from the fundamental issues and problems involved. This has engendered arguments which often end by the participants being forced into positions which become untenable as they are approached. As long as the emphasis is placed upon the relationship between the teacher and the administration there is no escape from this impasse.

Careful analysis of the material being published today on this vital subject reveals that it deals largely with the question as to how much freedom should be given a teacher in the classroom and beyond the confines of the campus to state his views and engage in ideological activities. As such, this material becomes spade work for the building of a rampart to protect the teacher from attempts by his administrative officers and pressure groups to limit his teaching and extraclassroom activities. All too often this approach makes the teacher a hero or martyr and these other factors the great and little villians of the piece—a most unfortunate not to say untrue picture.

Only when we widen the focus can we hope to get a true picture of academic freedom, and this broadening must be sufficient to include the entire social pattern. It must bring into focus not only the teacher and the administration, but

also the pupil who sits in the classroom, the parents who send their children to the school and pay the taxes, and *the fundamental values of the social pattern*.

Let us consider the last first since it is of paramount significance. Here we must state a fundamental axiom with which all who are concerned with academic freedom—I mean honestly concerned—will agree: *freedom is essential to the good life*. My use of "freedom" excludes "license." Freedom that is essential for the good life is a freedom founded upon and guaranteed by law, freedom which is undergirded by respect for human personality. So long as such freedom is missing, the good life is impossible. With this as our basic thesis, it follows that academic freedom must be judged by its contribution to freedom in the society. Any act which limits or makes less possible freedom as defined above cannot be justified under the guise of protecting academic freedom. Therefore, whenever we talk about academic freedom we are concerned with certain academic factors which help to guarantee freedom.

This position leaves no room for that "freedom" which some claim for the purpose of destroying freedom or limiting it or making its attainment more difficult. When a teacher demands the right, under the guise of his academic freedom, to undercut freedom by word or act, he reveals his complete misunderstanding of academic freedom and

should receive no protection from those who do rightly understand. Academic freedom guarantees to every teacher the freedom to make free the human mind and to lead toward greater freedom those minds which come under his influence. By so doing he will bring up young people to adulthood who will continue to increase freedom in the social structure.

But, we must not look at the teacher alone. Academic freedom applies with equal cogency to the pupil in the classroom. Our high schools and colleges today are infested with a peculiar type of virus—young people who under the banner of academic freedom demand the right to speak and act so as to undermine the freedom of their classmates and of the teacher and administrators. Often such individuals are planted in the classroom by organizations wishing to sow confusion and distrust. When their mouthings of party line phrases and ideologies are challenged or they are denied the right to monopolize the class period, they cry out that their academic freedom is being infringed upon.

Let me hasten to add that while some young people infected by this virus know what they are about and realize that they are using academic freedom as a cloak only, the great mass of young people in high school and college who betray academic freedom do not know that they have been infected with the virus. They are sincere and honest dupes of their more clever or better organized campus mates. These latter will, if helped by wise and understanding teach-

ers skilled in their profession, see the error of their ways.

Academic freedom, as it applies to the pupil, means that his every act must lead to greater freedom both for himself and for his campus mates. Wherever or whenever he functions, either in the classroom, as an officer in a campus organization, as writer for the school paper, or as a leader in any activity, he must be guided by the principle of freedom. He must be forever asking himself, not am I free to do this, but, will what I am about to do contribute to greater freedom in society? Only those acts which are measured by this criterion and found true can be justified under the heading of academic freedom.

The administrator is part of this same picture. He owes an allegiance two ways—to the public that has entrusted him with the task at hand and to the faculty and student body. Often he finds himself between two pressures, either in danger of being crushed or likely to be torn apart. On many issues he may have to make decisions which favor one group or the other. But, deeper penetration reveals that fundamentally the principles of good academic administration are based on a clear understanding of academic freedom. Every decision should aim, in so far as it is possible for the administrator to determine, to increase freedom in society, the broad society which includes both the public and the faculty and student body.

Academic freedom, when considered in broad focus, means that teacher, pupil, administrator, and public act at all times to guarantee and increase freedom. This

approach is both positive and negative. It is, indeed, a method, an approach to education. It sets a great ideal, freedom. It measures every act by this ideal. It will be as ready to say, "No," as to say "Yes." It is no open door to chaotic license, as some who do not understand academic freedom, have held. It does not justify unsupervised or unchallenged classroom behavior, nor boardroom behavior either. It says in simple terms: The only life worth living is the good life; freedom is essential to the good life; academic freedom is academic procedure, by teacher, pupil, administrator,

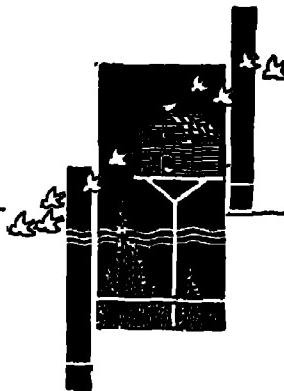
and public, which contributes to freedom; therefore, academic freedom is necessary for the good life.

As those concerned, at any level or from any perspective, with education come the better to understand this simple reasoning, we shall be freed from the untenable positions which some advocates of academic freedom find themselves, often unhappily, forced to take and the numerous academic problems that beset us today will fall into proper perspective so that we may attack them intelligently and move nearer to their solution.

In the City of Bagdad lived Hakeem, the Wise One, and many people went to him for counsel which he freely gave to all asking nothing in return. There came to him a young man who had spent much but got little and said: "Tell me, Wise One, what shall I do to receive the most for that which I spend?" Hakeem answered "A thing that is bought or sold has no value unless it contains that which cannot be bought or sold. Look for the Priceless Ingredient." "But what is this Priceless Ingredient?" asked the young man. Spoke then the Wise One, "My Son, the Priceless Ingredient of every product in the market place is the Honor and Integrity of him who makes it. Consider his name before you buy."—SELECTED

Sparrow

LOUISE D. GUNN



Among my class of girls that year,
She was the sparrow, rain-drenched and drab,
The least of His brethren, and yet as dear
To me as daughter. Her eyes
I sought, teaching poems from a book
. . . The fog on cat feet . . . Birches for swinging . . .
And in her enraptured, upturned look
I glimpsed an understanding like
To mine. This shabby sparrow had a thirst
For beauty, drinking so eagerly,
I feared her childish heart might burst.
But no, that year it learned to soar,
Her fluttering heart, to soar and sing,
Beyond the misty birch tree branches,
Beyond my own imagining.

The Battle of the Senate Gallery

GILBERT BYRON

IN WASHINGTON the Seniors of Midletown had rooms at the Ambassador, the girls and Miss Faucett on the fourth floor while Wilbur and the boys rode the elevator for three more floors. It was safer that way, or so it seemed. After a large supper they divided into two groups. Those who considered themselves intellectuals went with Miss Faucett to the theater while Wilbur took the rest, a much larger group, to the movies. After the show, more food was necessary and for Wilbur more of the little white tablets. It was apparent that the demands on the little bottle had been so heavy that he would soon run out. Luckily, he had the extra supply in his suitcase. It was nearly midnight when he finally lured the seniors back to their hotel. Of course Miss Faucett's group was already there, and had gone to their rooms. Wilbur went upstairs and joined the boys. Every boy was in his room, just as it was supposed to be. The little man gargled his throat and tried to go to sleep. The little fellow missed his twin bed and Mrs. Blodgett in the other twin bed.

It was one A.M. and Wilbur was sitting in the lobby of the Ambassador. All of his boys were safely in bed, now, but Wilbur could not sleep; the happenings of the day were churning. The lobby was deserted with the exception of the night clerk and dimly lighted. Wilbur picked up the evening edition of the *Times Herald* and for the moment he lost himself in the terrors of the

comic sheet. But they were too realistic and he turned to the advertising section only to entangle his eyes in the notices of funeral directors and embalmers . . . they were so efficient and courteous. He put the newspaper in the rack and closed his eyes, sinking in the overstuffed chair which was so much like the one in his apartment. He must have dozed when the clacking of the elevator doors startled him. He heard Miss Faucett's voice and sank further down in the chair but she saw him.

"Mr. Blodgett," she said, "Something terrible has happened."

"Oh, my," he said, his mind flashing to the violence recorded on the front page of the newspaper he had just been reading. "Has one of the seniors jumped from the hotel roof?"

"No, not that," she said, "but Harriet Smith is missing."

"Harriet Smith," Wilbur said, "that's the girl who didn't go to the prom because she couldn't get a date."

"Well, she has a date now," Miss Faucett said.

"My boys were all getting ready for bed a few minutes ago," Wilbur said, wondering if he should have stayed with them.

"She's gone out with a sailor," Miss Faucett said. "Can you imagine anything worse?"

"How about a marine?" Wilbur said.

Miss Faucett ignored his answer.

"Elsie Sparrow told me that Harriet met him on the ferry this morning.

They arranged to meet again outside the hotel."

"Where would they go this time of night?" Wilbur said.

"I think that we'd better notify the police," Miss Faucett said.

"She'll come back again," Wilbur said, not caring to bring the uniformed gentlemen into the picture.

"We've got to find her before something terrible happens," Miss Faucett said.

"I have to take care of my boys," Wilbur said.

"You are going out and try to find her or I will call in the police," Miss Faucett said, her eyes starting to bore into the little man.

Wilbur surrendered. When Miss Faucett started the either-or technique there was nothing left for him to do. "All right," he said, "I'll go."

It was cool outside and the street was deserted with the exception of two taxis parked in front of the hotel. Wilbur walked over to the nearest one.

"You want to go somewhere, Bud?" the driver said. For some reason strangers always called Wilbur, Bud or Mac.

"I'm looking for a sailor and a young girl," he said.

"Sure, Bud," the driver said, "They just took the taxi ahead of mine."

"I've got to find them," Wilbur said. "I'll give you ten dollars if you help me."

"Them sailors usually take their girls over by the monument or down to the river," the driver said. "Get in."

They sped away. "Is she your daughter, Bud?" the driver asked.

"No, she's a senior girl I'm chaperoning," Wilbur said.

"That's one job I wouldn't want," the driver said.

Most of the automobiles they passed were taxis and as they approached the monument, Wilbur saw a taxi parked, tail light on and exhaust showing in the red light.

"Is that the one?" he asked.

"It could be," the driver said, pulling over behind it.

Wilbur got out and walked toward the car. The driver was slumped in the front seat, apparently asleep. This must be them, he thought. Wilbur rapped on the taxi door. A face popped up like a jack-in-the-box, but it wasn't a sailor, it was a marine and he was more than annoyed. The searcher turned and scurried back to his taxi.

"That was a marine," he said, breathlessly, as they pulled away. On the lawn by the monument there were a number of park benches and all of them were occupied. Wilbur counted three white hats that must belong to sailors.

"I'll wait for you," the driver said. "There's a park policeman over there. Why don't you tell him your troubles?"

After the encounter with the uniform on the ferry, Wilbur had little desire to confide in the constabulary, but he did.

"You just walk casually past the benches, Mac," the policeman said. "If you locate the girl and have trouble just call on me."

The first couple that Wilbur approached were so entwined that it was

impossible to tell what was what. He decided that the man was another marine and hurried on.

The second bench held a sailor to be sure but the girl wasn't Harriet, at least Wilbur hoped not. Neither one noticed him.

As Wilbur tried to stroll casually toward the third bench, the couple stood up and started to walk away. Wilbur saw that it was Harriet.

"Harriet," he commanded, and the girl stopped. "Harriet, you'll have to come with me or Miss Faucett will notify the police."

The mention of the police with Miss Faucett lurking in the background was too much for the girl. She came over to Wilbur and started to sniffle.

The sailor shifted his white hat to the back of his head. "It's all right with me, Buster," he said. "You can have her. She's one cold chicken if I ever had one."

Harriet started weeping as they walked to the taxi.

"We didn't do anything wrong, Mr. Blodgett," she said. "The other girls were saying I couldn't get a man and I just wanted to show them."

"All right," Wilbur said and got in the back seat with her.

"You're lucky to find her, Bud," the driver said as he drove away.

When they entered the lobby of the hotel, Miss Faucett was waiting. But this time she had nothing to say, for tears were pouring down Miss Faucett's face. Wilbur said goodnight, and this time, the little man slept though on two occasions he awoke to find his feet mov-

ing in much the same manner as his terrier Deuce, when the little dog dreamed of chasing cats.

After breakfast the next morning, the seniors visited the Smithsonian Institute. Wilbur was weary but Miss Faucett had recovered her usual authority and tried to watch all of the seniors at the same time. While in this over all capacity, her special problem, Elsie Sparrow slipped away, and the Latin teacher saw her with the football captain, about to enter the darkest recesses of an Egyptian tomb. Miss Faucett had been trying to out-stare a mummy, that was standing upright, and seemed most insulting, to her. She saw Elsie out of the corner of her eye.

"Elsie," she shouted, "come back here."

It so happened that one of the museum's guards was standing on the other side of the mummy case.

"Madam," he said, in a voice that belonged to the museum, "You will have to be quiet."

Miss Faucett turned on the mummy and for a moment she must have thought that the old gent had spoken to her. Anyway, she was flabbergasted. Then she saw the guard.

"Who do you think you are addressing," she said, forgetting the objective case in her surprise.

"I have no idea, Madam," the guard said, "but if you can't be quiet you will have to leave the museum."

Ordinarily, Wilbur would have bet any amount on Miss Faucett in such a situation, and given three to one odds, but this time, she failed. Perhaps it was

the vestiges of past empires spread over the museum, with their slight care for the individual; it might have been the mummy out-staring Miss Faucett, anyway, Caesar's teacher bowed to the guard and passed on into the darkest recesses of the tomb. But not before at least forty of the seniors gathered to witness the tragedy. None of them was ever quite the same again. Wilbur wondered if the guard had borrowed his manner and stare from the mummy; certainly, it couldn't have been the other way around.

That afternoon the seniors were scheduled to go to the capitol, where they would meet their senior senator, the Honorable Cyrus M. Bucker, and also have the opportunity of seeing the houses of Congress in session. Senator Bucker was waiting in his office to meet these future members of his electorate. He gave each senior a friendly hand clasp and smile.

"I do hope that we are not keeping you from your seat in the Senate Chamber, Senator Bucker," Miss Faucett said, smiling ingratiatingly. "We want to visit the Senate this afternoon."

"You do," the good senator said. "In that case I would like to speak to you and Mr. Blodgett privately." He walked over to the window and they followed.

"You'd better not take the kids to the Senate Chamber today," he said. "Senator Bullhorn and four or five other southern senators are conducting a filibuster against the anti-poll tax bill."

"The seniors have been studying about filibustering; they know all about filibustering," Wilbur said. "Wouldn't

it be interesting for them to see a real one?"

"Decidedly not, Mr. Blodgett," the senator said, and the tone of his voice showed that he was annoyed. "For one thing there are only about ten senators in the chamber. And Senator Bullhorn is liable to say 'most anything. Why don't you come back another day?'"

"We are going home tomorrow," Wilbur said. "All year the seniors have been talking about seeing Congress in action instead of just talking about it."

"Why don't you visit the House of Representatives?" Senator Bucker said.

"That's the thing to do," Miss Faucett said. "Let's do that, Mr. Blodgett."

"If they are in session," Wilbur said. The two chaperones shook hands with the senator and led their charges to the capitol building. But they learned from an attache that the House had recessed until five o'clock. Yes, the Senate was officially meeting but there wasn't much going on. Senator Bullhorn, from Mississippi was speaking; he had been speaking for the last hour.

The seniors heard what the attache said and were on their way to the Senate gallery before Wilbur could stop them, if he had really wanted to. Miss Faucett did call once, softly, but another attache, in uniform, made his appearance. Her second shout was smothered, and mouth still open, she broke into a dog trot, close on the heels of the seniors. Wilbur brought up the rear, slipping one of his last soda mint tablets into his mouth as he climbed the flights of stairs to enter the holy of holies. The gallery was deserted with the exception of the

doorkeeper and his assistants; the seniors spread out along the gallery rail. Yes, Senator Bullhorn was still speaking, to whom, it was not certain for the presiding officer with his battery of reading clerks and bill clerks outnumbered the group of senators present.

"I will not sit passively and see my state, the great state of Mississippi, surrender its sovereignty to the federal bureaucracy," the senator thundered. "The northern senators who would lodge the sovereignty of their states in a federal bureau are selling their birthright for a mess of pottage." He paused to drink some water.

A senator rose from his desk. "Mr. Chairman," he said, "I suggest the absence of a quorum."

The chairman who had appeared to be dozing, straightened up. "The clerk will call the roll," he said.

One of the battery of clerks stirred, cleared his throat, and started with the A's. The seniors were amazed by the speedy way that the chamber recovered its quota of missing senators. The procedure reminded Wilbur of tardy school children, trying to slip into their desks before the teacher called their names.

Rested, after the completion of the roll, Senator Bullhorn continued, "As I was saying while most of you northern senators were napping in the cloakroom, I will not sit passively, and see my state, the great sovereign state of Mississippi surrender to the federal bureaucracy."

"Boo," one of the seniors in the gallery shouted, "Boo," and before their teachers could silence them, the entire group broke out in a loud chorus of boos.

The booing caught Senator Bullhorn

by surprise. He stopped talking and raised his eyes to the boys and girls in the gallery. The chairman also looked aloft, as did the reading clerks, the bill clerks, the parliamentarian, the pages, and the rest of the senators. The chairman pounded his gavel on the rostrum and the booing subsided.

Senator Bullhorn was not stumped for long. "Here is another proof of the wave of delinquency which is sweeping the country," he said. "While the senate wastes time debating a bill which would cripple the forty-eight states, the juvenile crime wave rolls to our very door, nay, into the chamber of the United States Senate and threatens to cripple our proceedings."

"You're the one who is keeping the Senate from getting anything done," Billy Klemmentz yelled from the gallery and a roar of laughter came from the senators sitting on the right side of the chamber.

But Senator Bullhorn was used to being attacked, he thrived on it. He turned to the chairman and pulled out the black leather book which contains the senate rules. "Mr. Chairman," the senator from Mississippi said, and there were tears in his voice. "Certainly there must be something in our manual to prevent a United States Senator from being insulted by a young stripling from a backwoods high school."

This insult to their alma mater was more than the seniors could bear. They not only booed, they hissed, and stamped their feet.

The chairman pounded the rostrum. "If the chaperones in charge of the students in the gallery cannot control their

charges I will have to ask the sergeant-at-arms to clear the gallery. I might pause to remark that the display we in the senate have just witnessed is another indication of modern youth's lack of responsibility and it also reflects critically on the teachers who are supposed to be in control of them."

Wilbur felt his face starting to get red. Wilbur was becoming angry, and when the little fellow flew off the handle the biggest bullies of Middletown High School tread softly. Unfortunately, the worthy chairman of the Senate was not aware of the powerful fissure he had breached. Wilbur leaped to his feet, and if Billy Klemmentz's hand had not been on his arm, it is probable that he would have jumped over the gallery rail, shouting, "Sic semper tyrannis" or words to that effect.

"Mr. Chairman," Wilbur shouted, "I arise to a question of privilege." The history teacher knew his parliamentary procedure or thought that he did.

The chairman knew that he had no authority to recognize a spectator in the gallery. He glued his eyes on Senator Bullhorn who was making the most of the respite and resting his voice.

By this time, Wilbur was completely off the handle. "Mr. Chairman," he shouted and all the seniors joined their teacher, "Mr. Chairman."

The chairman pounded the rostrum. "I have no reason or the authority to recognize the person in the spectator's gallery," he said.

"But you have recognized us and bawled us out," Wilbur said, "and we have been looking forward all year to seeing you."

The chairman spoke. "This is highly

irregular but for the occasion I will make an exception if Senator Bullhorn will yield the floor to the spectator."

The senator was still testing his voice. "Why not," he said, "I will yield the little fellow the floor for five minutes." He gestured magnanimously.

Wilbur grasped the rail. "Mr. Chairman, and members of the Senate," he said. "First of all I am sorry that my seniors booed and hissed. It wasn't a pleasant spectacle, but, as the Senator from Mississippi so fluently stated a few minutes ago, we are from a small town. It is certainly not very important to the nation just how we conduct ourselves. But, Mr. Chairman, it is very important to our country how the Senate of the United States conducts itself. I do not expect to apologize for the reason that impelled my seniors to boo and hiss. You, gentlemen, have been engaging in a spectacle that is a disgrace to our country. These seniors were smart enough to realize this and they reacted, as Americans always will to humbug and demagoguery. You, Senator Bullhorn, cite these seniors as a danger to the American way of life. Actions by such as you are the real danger to our country and I'm glad they booed you."

The chairman was watching the clock on the desk and fingering his gavel. The newspaper men were taking it all down.

The senior senator from Alabama, Senator Longbill arose. "Mr. Chairman, will the gentleman in the gallery yield the floor for a question," he asked.

"Mr. Schoolteacher," the chairman said, "Will you yield the floor to the Senator from Alabama for a question?"

"I will not," Wilbur said. The little-

man was very definitely off the handle but he was not off the beam and he was warming to the task. "All of my seniors have been studying about the federal government and now that we've seen the Senate in action, we don't like it. And don't forget you are looking at future voters, and tax payers."

Senator Bullhorn whispered lengthily in the ear of the senior senator from Alabama and that gentleman rose again.

"Mr. Chairman," he called, "I arise to a question of privilege."

"Senator Longbill," the Chairman murmured.

"Mr. Chairman," the senator said. "I move that the senate recesses until five o'clock."

"If there is no objection, the Senate is recessed until five o'clock," the Chairman said, and struck a great blow on the rostrum with his gavel.

The senators hurried away, even faster than they had assembled, followed by the chairman, the bill clerks, the reading clerks, the parliamentarian, and the page boys, leaving the seniors and Mr. Blodgett in control of the chamber.

"You certainly did bawl them out, Mr. Blodgett," Dorothy Davis said, "but they deserved it."

"They didn't let me finish," Wilbur said. "If a class of mine ever acted like they did, I'd ask Mr. Hartwell to expel them."

"I never saw you so mad before, Prof," Billy Klemmentz said. "Not even the day Joe Moss pitched the lighted fire cracker from your window when you were called to the door."

"Mr. Blodgett was the one that tossed

the fire cracker, this time," Dorothy said, "and did those Senators run."

Wilbur was beginning to feel the reaction that always came when he over-exercised his adrenals. The void in the pit of his stomach was increasing and his legs felt as if he had just finished the mile run. He slipped a soda mint tablet in his mouth.

"Let's go back to the buses," he said, wondering if his legs would carry him to this haven.

The reporters and camera men caught up with them in the lobby. "Where are you kids from?" one asked. "What's your name professor, that little speech of yours is going to make page one of the evening edition," said another. They leaned Wilbur against the wall, and squeezed him dry of information. The camera men followed. "Let us take the picture of all of you together, and one of the professor alone. Hold up your hand like you did for the senators, professor." Wilbur made an indifferent fist, and the lights flashed.

"Wonder what Professor Hartwell will say when he sees our pictures?" Billy Klemmentz said.

"I don't know," Wilbur said, "let's get back to the buses."

Not long afterwards, returning to their hotel, they were faced by newsboys carrying the evening papers. The headlines of one Washington paper was enough for Wilbur.

"SCHOOLTEACHER BAWLS OUT SENATORS FOR FILIBUSTERING" it screamed, and there were pictures of the seniors and one of Wilbur shaking his fist.

Everybody bought copies. "I wonder what Professor Hartwell will think,"

Dorothy Davis said. Wilbur took the newspaper to the privacy of his room. If he had said all of that, he had really bawled them out. He must have really flew off the handle. But he wasn't sorry, no, he wasn't sorry. And to think, he lived in a country where a little fellow like himself could bawl out the government and not be shot. A great country, the greatest on earth; even if a few senators made long speeches. Wilbur picked up the telephone and ordered toast with tea. Sitting in the big chair in the hotel room, sipping the tea, Wilbur realized as never before what it meant to be a free American.

After the BATTLE OF THE SENATE GALLERY, that was what the morning papers called the adventure, the seniors and Wilbur were glad to board the buses and move toward Middletown. No longer did they awaken each village with their cheers. After all, seasoned travelers are easily bored; besides they were really tired and sleepy. Even Miss Faucett dozed on the ferry and the juke box remained strangely silent. When the buses emerged from the ferry and rolled the Eastern Shore highways they continued to doze, even when the cavalcade rolled through the sleepy little towns. When passing through the bailiwick of an athletic rival the cheer leaders did rouse them long enough for their favorite cheer, where they spelled out the name of their alma mater with a lusty tiger on the end. Only this time the usual tremendous final burst sounded more like a drowsy little kitten.

Only their approach to Middletown awakened the returning pilgrims. The

girls began to take quick looks in the little mirrors and the boys straightened their neckties.

"Let's stop at the Sweete Shoppe and get cokes, Mr. Blodgett," Dorothy Davis said, and when Wilbur demurred, "Loosen up, Prof, we're home."

Wilbur surrendered and while Miss Faucett's bus properly proceeded to the school grounds the others repaired to their favorite club, to swamp Nick Ker-tiles, the owner and proprietor.

"How's the town been, Nick," Billy Klemmentz said, swinging his suitcase so that his host could get a good look at the six labels of Washington hotels.

"You kids going somewhere?" he said, looking at all the luggage. "What's matter, you kids going somewhere?" He paused and viewed them soberly. Then he laughed as only the Greeks can. "You kids glad to get back?"

"You bet, Nick," they all said, and he set the crowd up to cokes.

Secure in the booths, with two quarters in the juke box, the seniors, and Wilbur felt safe and happy in an unsafe world. And all agreed over a second coke, that the greatest happening of the trip had not been Harriet Smith's disappearance, nor was it Wilbur's speech to the Senators; no, they would remember longer, when the mummy out-stared Miss Faucett and silenced her.

And Wilbur, their teacher, sitting with his pupils in their favorite rendezvous relaxed as his anxieties fled before the strains of the juke box and the bravery of young people's laughter. For the first time in his twenty years of teaching in Middletown, Wilbur belonged. The little fellow was happy.

Neo-Scholasticism in High School Education

L. H. GARSTIN

I

THE FEUD among the educationists has once again broken into open warfare. Quiescent since the triumph of Dewey, Bode, Kilpatrick and others, the struggle is now rejoined with the lines as sharply drawn and the issues as clearly defined. On the one hand are the "progressives" who have made the theories of Dewey workable in the classroom while on the other hand are the "neo-scholastics" who not merely deplore existing educational techniques but desire to substitute for them what they consider to be the sounder practices of an earlier day. Particularly determined is the battle over curricula though teaching methods are also involved.

The writings of the neo-scholastics who are the aggressors in the matter reveal the nature of the issues at stake. States Mark Van Doren in commenting on the development of the modern college curriculum:

The curriculum was now completely flexible, but it had no joints. It was open but it did not know what to contain. . . . It confused breadth with variety. . . . Wanting something of everything . . . it got nothing in the end. Incapable of its own synthesis, it hoped that the student would find his; yet countless observers have reported the student as anything but happy in the adventure. The final result is apathy

or intellectual and emotional paralysis, the only positive expression of which takes the form of snap judgments about everything.¹

The trouble, he continues, is that:

There are too many subjects now, with the result that college offerings are spaciously broad. When they are apparently narrow but actually deep, they will have that spreading power which education desires. The search must be for a narrow formula. . . . The only classification of studies that is capable of interesting the mind is a simple classification under a few heads: three or four at the most. . . . A curriculum creates a world. It is important then that it have a center and an order of parts. Some studies are surely secondary to others, as some rest on others as a base.²

The key to the criticism lies in the statement that the curriculum is "incapable of its own synthesis." Contemporary curricula reveal no sense of unity; no common core around which their various parts revolve. As Van Doren has put it, "there are gaps or breaks between poetry and mathematics, between science and ethics, between philosophy and politics; advance through these subjects is not on a single front."

Why are the neo-scholastics so concerned with the need of unified curricula in the nation's schools and colleges? The reasons are not far to seek. The up-thrust of individualism which shattered the unity of the Medieval scene and gave the western world the heritage of liberty and freedom which it now cher-

¹ Van Doren, Mark: *Liberal Education*, p. 109.

² Ibid., p. 113.

ishes had profound consequences for educational theory and practice. To educate the individual in an atmosphere of final authority which imposed from above the nature of the subjects of study and the manner in which learning should proceed was repugnant to those who believed in individual liberty and freedom of choice. Consequently education came to be conceived as an attempt to promote the continued growth of the individual as an individual. Education, it was argued, must make provision for individual differences, allowing each personality to develop his own capacities and interests without the restraints of externally imposed authority.

This re-emphasis of educational aims was put into practice by widening the number of subjects offered in school and college and by instituting an elective system whereby students might pick and choose the subjects that would best serve their interests. To the academic subjects of less than half a century ago were added cultural courses such as art, drama, and music; technical trade courses such as woodwork, metalwork and automotive mechanics; and commercial courses such as typing, bookkeeping and shorthand.

The neo-scholastics condemn such trends in educational practice because they fail to give the individual an integrated view of life. The extreme specialization characteristic of contemporary education has destroyed the unity of knowledge and outlook which the scholar could gain in the pre-industrial era. Where economics is taught divorced

from political science, history divorced from psychology, and literature divorced from sociology, there is little chance of the learner grasping an integrated view of the world. Similarly, where students have concentrated on University Entrance subjects or Technical or Commercial courses, an integrated conceptual scheme is impossible of attainment.

For such reasons the neo-scholastics decry the growth of the elective system which allows individuals an indiscriminate choice of courses. They argue that the high school student and even the college student is unable to choose wisely the courses which he should take. Far too often, it is claimed, courses are chosen either because they are "pipe" courses or because they are valued in terms of credits for graduation or receipt of a degree. For the most part, too, the courses selected have no interrelation or common pattern. The neo-scholastics feel that a broad, generalized curriculum compulsory for all would eliminate the choice of courses for unworthy motives. To quote Van Doren again:

The search for a curriculum is the search for one that is worthy to be uniform and universal. . . . A genuine curriculum will permit no student to miss any important thing anywhere; the whole of it will be prescribed and prescribed for everyone.⁸

Again, the neo-scholastics deplore the utilitarian bent which specialization in one or another field of vocational training has fostered. They maintain that such bias in educational planning has caused the broader aspects of life to be neglected. Problems concerned with the nature of the Good Life and the whole

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 110.

question of ethical behavior are ignored. Everything is reduced to the money calculus; to the question of whether a larger income will be the consequence of the training given. The worth of education is judged in terms of whether or not its end result will be bigger and better homes, refrigerators, automobiles and an increasing degree of material satisfaction. But men can not exist on bread alone as we are rapidly coming to realize.

Thirdly, the neo-scholastics point to the state of the world to-day and argue that what is needed is not a scientific, vocational, specialized and individualized education but an education whose emphasis is on the analysis and understanding of social processes. The physical environment may have been to a large extent brought under human control but it is certain that the social environment has not. What is needed is a switch of emphasis from physical engineering to social engineering in curricula contents. Colleges and High Schools should reduce the amount of time spent in studying the natural and mathematical sciences and increase correspondingly the amount of time spent on the social sciences.

Finally, certain neo-scholastics look with concern on the trend towards mediocrity which they see in contemporary educational organization. The future leaders of our western culture, they claim, have been sacrificed in the interests of educating the masses. The masses have compelled a lowering of scholarship standards to their own inadequate

level, thereby presenting no challenge to the intellectually superior. The dull and the brilliant; the sheep and the goats are educated as though they were a single homogeneous group despite the attempt to provide for individual differences. Learning is reduced to the lowest common denominator of shallow and ineffective thought and understanding.

II

The Neo-Scholastic Solution

How the neo-scholastics propose to remedy the faults which they believe to be at the bottom of the existing crisis in education has hitherto been briefly hinted. One common curriculum "prescribed for everybody" is perhaps the first step in the right direction. A common curriculum implies a common point of view, and such a view will become a part of the students who are exposed to it. Hence the single curriculum compulsory for all is a means of insuring an integrated and unified view of the world and its problems. As such, it would be a potent antidote to the particularism which at present plagues society.

But a curriculum prescribed for everyone is valuable not alone for its integrating effects. It appeals, too, to that which is common in man. Once more to illustrate by reference to Van Doren:

The deep resemblances between human beings calls for a fixed programme of learning which no child may evade. People should be taught as long as possible in terms of their likenesses to one another.⁴

What would be the content of a curriculum such as here advocated? Many answers have been given but perhaps

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 92.

most typical of the neo-scholastic approach are the proposals outlined in the Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*. This report, revealing a profound dissatisfaction with the present fragmentary and specialized education, insists that there should be a return to a more generalized form of education, stressing three main areas of knowledge; that of the humanities, the social sciences, and the mathematical and natural sciences. The *Report* concludes that it would have the average high school student devote one-half to two-thirds of his high school career to these three fields of learning.

The content of each of the three fields would be cast in the traditional classic mould. The theories of formal discipline and of the transfer of training are resurrected. Formal grammar is good for the mind; the study of Latin syntax is excellent training in logic and reasoning; mathematics "trains the mind in abstractions." "The theory of formal discipline," states Van Doren, corroborating the Harvard Report contentions, "is that certain studies if properly pursued yield not only knowledge of their own content but an intellectual skill which can be employed in other studies; it is the theory that certain studies are good for the mind."

There is, too, a nostalgia for the past. Education, the neo-scholastics claim, must turn from the fleeting and shallow thought and literature of the present to the classic intellectual and literary works of bygone times. The roots of the present lie deep in the past and if we desire

to understand fully existing economic, political and social problems, we must return to the past in which these problems have arisen.

The trend towards the new educational medievalism is most evident at the university level. The Chicago plan of R. M. Hutchins, the St. John's College plan and the plan inaugurated at Columbia University are outstanding examples of the movement towards neo-scholasticism in university education.

Dr. R. M. Hutchins, President of Chicago University has long contended that modern education is detrimental to the unity of western culture and to the promotion of values other than the utilitarian values of learning a vocation and earning a living. To overcome these defects, Dr. Hutchins began an experiment in a generalized form of education whose aim was to give the student a synthesized and unified body of knowledge with which to face the world. He made it mandatory for all freshmen to take a general course which consisted in the study and discussion of the world's "best" books ranging from Plato to John Stuart Mill; from Thucydides to Gibbon; from Aristotle to Darwin. Dr. Hutchins is convinced that only in the great thinkers and writers of the past is knowledge of lasting value to be found.

Columbia University moved in the same direction in introducing a "general honours course, a course in the great books of the western tradition," as Irwin Edman defines it. This course was for a limited number of students but more recently the University, "has made a course in the readings of twenty-five or

^a Ibid., p. 121.

more masterpieces from Homer to the present time, a required course for all freshmen." A similar course in the basic sciences required of all students has also been made obligatory.

St. John's College has probably gone farther than any other American university to date. It has instituted a four year program in the field of the general liberal arts. This program consists entirely of readings in the great classics of the past. The list of books is formidable. Philosophic, mathematical, scientific and literary masterpieces are all included.

III

Validity of the Neo-Scholastic Position

Undoubtedly the neo-scholastics have centered attention on some of the most vital educational problems of the age. The atomistic approach to the organization of education which they deplore must lead eventually to the most disastrous results for contemporary civilization. In a world which is rapidly becoming more and more interdependent, the narrow outlook which such a form of education engenders, breeds nothing but misunderstanding and hostility among classes and nations. Some form of unified education is essential to the preservation of cultural integration. It is this which the neo-scholastics in reality seek.

Nor can one doubt but that present day education is too materialistic. Men are slowly beginning to realize that material progress of itself is no guarantee of the coming of the millenium. Greater knowledge and understanding of social engineering is imperative if social con-

flicts are not to destroy all hope of national and international equilibrium.

Again educators ignore the trend towards intellectual mediocrity at the risk of depriving society of its most precious assets; those men and women most capable of rendering leadership out of the present vale of darkness and uncertainty.

So far one must agree with the neo-scholastics. Where disagreement is bound to arise is in consideration of the content of the universal curriculum conceived by them and in consideration of the premises upon which they base their arguments for such a curriculum.

The neo-scholastic curriculum is founded on the assumption that there are "deep resemblances between men." Because of this, it is argued, the same subject matter, the same books and texts and the same methods of instruction can be used everywhere and for all men. Moreover, it is their contention that "what was once for the few must be now for the many. There is no escape from this—least of all through the sacrifice of quality to quantity. The necessity is not to produce a handful of masters; it is to produce as many masters as possible, even though this be millions."¹⁸ The neo-scholastics, then, appear to desire that the classically biased curriculum of the nineteenth century be returned to its former pre-eminence and extended to the masses.

Granted that men need a common outlook or *Weltanschauung* it is, nevertheless preposterous to expect that the same techniques applied to all sorts and conditions of men will be effective in creating the common viewpoint. Indi-

¹⁸ Ibid, p. 31.

vidual differences in ability and interests can not be completely ignored. The "deep resemblances between men" are not so deep nor so extensive as the neo-scholastics would have them.

The fact is that the high schools of today must make provision for two classes of students; a small group of the total high school population who are destined to continue their education in the universities to become later carriers of knowledge, research workers, manipulators of the physical environment and political and economic leaders, and the amorphous masses who will enter the business, commercial and labor world immediately upon graduation from high school. The latter the neo-scholastics seem to ignore. They still think in terms of the nineteenth century university preparatory school which catered solely to the scholastically superior. They fail to realize that in the United States, for example, the increase in the high school population since 1870, which approximates a jump from 80,000 to 7,000,000 pupils, means that provision must be made for the non-academically inclined.

But what is to be done? How can one devise a curriculum which will serve wide variations in native ability and general interests while at the same time creating a common point of view among those who are exposed to it? If a classical curriculum is imposed on everybody, it is certain that the laws of selection will eliminate those of lesser intellectual prowess at an early age, with the consequence that unity of outlook among

all classes of the nation will not become a reality. On the other hand, if courses are "watered down" to the level of the average, there will be a tendency for education to atrophy in colourless mediocrity.

The solution of the problem would seem to be the introduction of two separate curricula into the high schools, one designed to challenge the intellectually superior; the other fitted to the needs of the amorphous masses. Such curricula would of necessity have to possess a common basic core. This core would be woven about common aims and objectives; about a common *weltanschauung* or view of life. Identity of instructional methods and of teaching materials would be eliminated.

The author has suggested elsewhere that since one fundamental cause of the current social maladjustment is the hiatus between development in the natural and physical sciences and development in the social sciences, the focus of university curricula should be the social sciences.¹ There is no reason why this should not also be true of the high school. In fact, as the author pointed out, the high school has already begun to think in terms of integration around a core. History, economics and geography have been integrated in the "social studies"; algebra, geometry and arithmetic have been integrated in "general mathematics." These, together with English, have been termed the "core curriculum." Such forms of integration and unification should be continued, with the social sciences occupying a pre-eminent position in the totality of teaching and study time available. The scope of

¹ Garstin, L. H.: *The Social Sciences and the University*, in *Social Education*, Vol. X, No. 6, October, 1946, pp. 252-54.

the social sciences should be broadened to include social psychology and sociology in addition to economics, geography and the chronology of events. Economic and geographic determinism are not sufficient to account for historical progress.*

The basic core of both curricula, then, would be the study of the social sciences. Added to this core would be other subjects necessary to an adequate understanding of and adjustment to the natural and social environment: English, the natural sciences, the mathematical sciences and the cultural arts.

But how, one might well ask, separate the sheep from the goats; the intellectually superior from the amorphous masses? The problem is twofold. First must be developed techniques of direction and guidance, of sorting and selecting pupils at an early age, on the basis of abilities, interests and personality factors. Considerable progress in this direction has already been made. With the increasing reliability and validity of scholastic aptitude tests, with the growing emphasis on counselling and guidance and with the detailed knowledge of human motivation and behavior accumulated by the psychologists in the past few decades, the direction of students into the most profitable channels of educational vocational endeavour can be accomplished with the highest degree of accuracy. The task of education is to promote wholeheartedly research in guidance and counselling techniques.

Accompanying the establishment of

* For a fuller discussion of this topic see: Garstin, L. H.: *Social Studies or Social Science?* in *The School, Secondary Edition*, Vol. 33, No. 8, pp. 718-722, Ontario College of Education, April 1945.

effective counselling and guidance services, must be a well planned program of parent education. Parents must be led to accept the fact of limits to their children's abilities, interests and aptitudes. They must therefore be taken into confidence and led to a sympathetic understanding of the aims and purposes of counselling and guidance. To direct students into this or that field of educational endeavour in the face of parental protests would be to invite failure from the outset. At all costs, vocational and educational decisions must be voluntary.

True, there is bound to be a certain margin of error in any guidance scheme. Because of the likelihood of such a margin of error, provision must be made for movement from one curriculum to the other during the course of the student's high school career. It is even possible that a student may not discover that he has chosen the wrong curriculum until he is on the verge of graduation from high school. Yet, this should in no way debar him from electing college education. Universities and colleges should consider it their duty to provide one year courses for those students who elect the curriculum designed for the amorphous masses but who, following graduation, decide to attend university. These one year courses would cover the work of the four high school years in the academic field. They would, it is true, impose an extra year of work on the student who took them. However, this would be better than being debarred from university entirely. It is certainly not the aim of the proposals mentioned in this paper to establish an educational caste system in American schools.

Path

LETHA JEAN BROCK



I love a path
That struggles through gulches,
Rambles over pleasant hills,
Fights its way up steep cliffs
Or poised gloriously on the heights.

I would not choose a smooth path.

But when the plunge is swift
Or the way most barred and tangled
For me—
For any of Your children—anywhere, Lord—
Please, Lord;
Give us the courage to lift our thoughts
Toward the path of a bright tomorrow.

Book Reviews

NOTE: *Reviews not signed have been written by the editor.*

BIOGRAPHY

JEFFERSON THE VIRGINIAN by Dumas Malone. Little, Brown and Company.
484 pp. \$6.00.

Jefferson the Virginian, by Dumas Malone, is obviously a work of great devotion. In this first installment of a contemplated four volume portrait, the author has given us a comprehensive evaluation which possesses a rich tapestry of detail. Together with Douglas S. Freeman's new analysis of Washington, this book represents the year's most significant contribution to the field of early American biography.

At a time when the literature of Jefferson's life has largely succumbed to specialization, a full-length study of the many facets of his versatile career helps to redress the balance. The recent trend towards the delimited investigation of segments of his experiences seems to be the antithesis of the young Virginian's own concept of an educated man. Perhaps the unique feature of Thomas Jefferson's personality was a determined refusal to limit his interests. As Professor Malone clearly observes: "No historic American, except possibly Benjamin Franklin, played so notable a part in so many important fields of activity and thought. . . . Jefferson's public career is inextricably entwined with the history of an entire era, and his diverse interests are bewildering to the minds of our age, which are universal in the aggregate but highly specialized in individuals."

The present volume, therefore, is limited only with respect to chronology. In it we encounter the whole sweep of Jefferson's formative years, the first four decades of his life. During this period he emerged as student, planter, lawyer, legislator, pam-

phleteer, governor, and philosopher. A refreshing aspect of this biography, however, is the author's commendable restraint in assaying the importance of his subject. Tenaciously refusing to inflate or anticipate the young Jefferson's "national" role, the author frankly acknowledges that much of the Virginian's early prominence had been confined to his own commonwealth. Although Jefferson had served as draftsman for the Congressional Declaration of July 4, 1776, he had received little individual recognition apart from his membership on the committee. Jefferson, we are told, "was not in the spotlight; nobody announced that he was the author of this paper or led him forward upon the stage to take a bow." In local circles, as well, his predominant leadership was still to be acknowledged. During Jefferson's gubernatorial years, the real "boss" of Virginia politics was the eloquent and engaging Patrick Henry. Even in philosophical disputation, the lord of Monticello, while respected by his associates, was not yet the recognized sage.

The biography is likewise significant as a corrective of certain interpretations. That Jefferson was not a robust penman of republicanism during the early stages of the pre-revolutionary controversy, as another biographer has maintained, is clearly indicated in this book. As late as 1774 he had been willing to appeal to the King for redress of colonial grievances. Thus it was virtually on the eve of the Declaration, according to Professor Malone, that Jefferson became an avowed republican, marking a complete repudiation of any compromise with the existing monarchy. Similarly the concept that Jefferson, prior to his presidential term, was a consistent advocate of

"weak" executive powers is qualified considerably by the author. As Governor of Virginia, Jefferson did not believe that the state executive was merely the recorder of the votes of the Council. Long before the trial of war criminals had been recognized in international law, the vigorous sentence imposed upon Henry Hamilton, the notorious frontier scalp buyer, belied the charge of executive timidity, even though the prisoner was eventually released through an exchange with the British authorities.

Among the finest sections in the book are those concerned with Jefferson's educational experiences. Especially noteworthy are the pithy sketches of some of his early mentors: Professor William Small, in the field of natural philosophy; George Wythe, in the profession of law; and Governor Francis Fauquier, in the "school of manners." When Jefferson himself became Governor of Virginia, he proposed a system which was designed to teach "all the children of the State reading, writing, and common arithmetic," and to provide a small number of state scholarships for the more promising youths of limited economic means. Although these measures, together with his plan for a state university, were not enacted during his administration, the account serves to explain the great pleasure which Jefferson later derived from the founding of the University of Virginia. With a work of such obvious merit, one is often reluctant to disagree. Perhaps a more critical evaluation of Jefferson's administrative ineptitude during the British invasion of Virginia might have given greater balance to the narrative of that very controversial interlude. Beyond the appended statement of the lands and slaves of Mr. Jefferson, and the occasional references in the main body of the book, the reader also might have welcomed a fuller description of the plantation system in operation at Monticello. Nevertheless, in the light of the general standard of performance, any note of disapproval seems minor. Much like Mr. Jefferson himself, this biography gives constant evidence of quiet dignity, thought-

ful reflection, and mature scholarship. The major manuscript sources, notably the rich bodies of Jeffersonian correspondence, have been carefully sifted and weighed. Although the portrait is painted in warm and affectionate tones, it is never allowed to descend to the level of maudlin sentimentality or partisan pleading. If this first volume of *Jefferson and His Time* may be construed as truly representative, we may expect from the pen of Dumas Malone a major work of lasting value.

LEONARD PRICE STAVISKY

New York State Teachers College
Oswego, New York



JOHN MCCOY: HIS LIFE AND DIARIES.

By Elizabeth Hayward. The American Historical Co., Inc., 493 pp. \$5.00.

John M'Coy (or McCoy), 1782-1859, was an Indiana pioneer, Indian fighter, and deacon in the Baptist Church. The last was, perhaps, most to his taste for he took great interest in religious and educational work. He was one of the earliest and constant friends of Franklin College (Indiana) at a time when they were few, and poor. When anyone gave him five dollars for the college he duly noted in his diary not only the amount but also the name of the giver and that of the man by whom he sent it to its destination. He served on the college board of trustees for many years.

The author and editor of the present volume is a descendant of John McCoy in the fifth generation. The volume contains a biography of the subject and his diaries extending with some gaps from 1842 to 1859. There is a genealogical table of the family.

H. G. GOOD

Ohio State University



EDUCATION

A STUDENT'S TEXTBOOK IN THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION by Stephen Duggan. Third edition. New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 512 pp. \$2.75.

The first edition of this book appeared in 1916 and the second, in 1935. Revision in the later editions consists largely of the adding of new pages with the view of bringing the text up to date. For instance, the initial 309 pages of the first edition reappear practically untouched in the last edition. In the general bibliography of the third edition six new titles have been added to the list of fifteen in the first edition.

The theme of the new volume, as of the preceding editions, is the "age-old problem of the reconciliation of individual liberty with social stability." The school systems of Nazi Germany and Communist Russia are cited as modern examples of the tendency to stress the latter factor at the expense of the former. The earlier editions, which followed the familiar pattern laid down by Paul Monroe, Cubberley, and Groves, were not outstanding. Nor is the third edition more impressive, if it is to be thought of as a textbook for senior college and graduate students.

The last two chapters, which contain accounts of contemporary developments in the United States and in five European countries, are the most significant. The author, for many years Director of the Institute of International Education, enjoyed an enviable position for the study of public education as a world movement. In view of the present need of American students for a comprehensive understanding of education in foreign lands, and in view of the dearth of information on this subject in textbooks of this type, the reviewer regrets that Dr. Duggan did not provide a fuller treatment. These final chapters might well have included, along with the postwar trends in European countries, brief accounts of the revolutionary developments of recent years in China and in Latin America.

STUART G. NOBLE

Tulane University

CHILD GROWTH THROUGH EDUCATION by Gertrude Hildreth. The Ronald Press Company. 437 pp. \$4.50.

Although written primarily "as a basic text for teacher-training courses in the theory and methods of elementary education," this very interesting book should have wide appeal for workers in all areas of education. Students taking courses in the principles of education, curriculum building, administration and other fields will find it particularly helpful in clarifying their concepts of the nature and objectives of education for democratic living, in broadening their understanding of the principles of learning and child development, and in getting insight into how to work effectively with children. In-service teachers who are seeking the answer to the ever-present question of "What can be done about individual differences?" will find in *Child Growth Through Education* an unusually rich source of suggestions for planning and developing classroom activities. For this reason it will be of especial value to administrators and supervisors who are trying to help teachers plan experiences which are satisfying for all children.

This volume is a penetrating argument in favor of the more recent trends in educational practice. Its chief value lies in the large number of suggestions given for making practical application of theory in the classroom. Every chapter is chock-full of well chosen examples. Of primary importance, also, is the fact that, while written with the earlier school years in mind, the book cuts across elementary-secondary boundaries in a way which illustrates that good teaching principles "apply with equal effect throughout the learning process."

Should the reader merely scan the "Table of Contents," he would probably get the impression that the book is a conglomeration of chapters lacking unity. A more careful examination, however, reveals that such is not the case. The first two chapters discuss the goals of education and the trend toward a more unified approach

to learning. Chapters 3 and 4 present briefly, but adequately for purposes here served, the psychological bases of "unified learning." The next four chapters describe in more detail the features of unified methods, the kinds of experiences children have, ways of planning and developing these experiences, and the kind of daily program necessary for implementing such a program. Then follow several chapters devoted to concrete illustrations of how the unified program functions in such subject matter fields as social studies, science, etc., in programs in intercultural relations and world citizenship, in the development of skills and in providing experiences for beginners. Chapter 16 describes the use of various tools and resources in the unified program. The next seven chapters deal with a variety of topics, some deserving, perhaps, more adequate treatment by the author. The last chapter attempts to evaluate results obtained through unified methods.

One very useful feature of the book is the large number of authoritative and well-chosen references given at the end of each chapter. Most of these are of fairly recent publication.

CARROLL F. CUMBER

University of Florida

COLLEGE TEACHING AND COLLEGE LEARNING by Ordway Tead. Yale University Press. 56 pp. \$2.00.

As the second of the series of The Frank Ellsworth Spaulding Lectureship in Education established by the Yale Department of Education, Ordway Tead, chairman of the Board of Higher Education of New York City, writes of college teaching and college learning, certainly a most important topic in view of the great increases in enrollments and a new awareness of the importance of the educative process.

The lecture is one which should arouse thought. "The Teacher as a Person" is a timely topic. The view presented is a much-

needed one when so many consciously or unconsciously maintain a duality between the teacher's thought and action, his philosophy and his practice. The positive note the author strikes is refreshing—and needed.

Other chapters discuss "The Teacher in Action as a Teacher," "The Nature of Learning," and "The Improvement of Teaching and Learning." There is a plea for *relevance*, for liveliness, for teaching skill.

A chapter on the nature of learning has ideas which, if followed, would revolutionize college and university teaching. This is a seasoned plan which avoids the extremes of ultra-progressivism, on the one hand, and stand-pattism on the other.



EDUCATION IN A DIVIDED WORLD by James Bryant Conant. Harvard University Press. 249 pp. \$3.00.

In this plain-spoken book President Conant of Harvard University examines American public education. He believes that "in planning for the future of the United States, we must assume at best an armed truce until at least the middle fifties and a divided world for a long time to come." He makes no bones about the seriousness of the situation but holds that we "must look increasingly to our free schools for the effective demonstration of our answer to totalitarian ideologies."

Foremost among our immediate educational needs, says Mr. Conant, is a study of the Soviet philosophy. Pointing out that "doctrines that are not combated in the classroom but treated merely with silence or contempt may be appealing to the immature," he says that we must "not retreat in fear from the Communist doctrine but [go out] vigorously to meet it . . . no one must be afraid to tackle that explosive subject before a class. If an avowed supporter of the Marx-Lenin-Stalin line can be found, force him into the open and tear his argu-

ments to pieces with counter-arguments."

In examining our tax-supported public elementary and secondary schools in the light of our democratic ideals, President Conant lists and analyzes three objectives and attacks two major problems. The objectives are: (1) education for citizenship, (2) education for the good life, (3) vocational education. The problems are: (1) social stratification caused by the fact that educational opportunity is now largely determined by geography and family status, (2) the especially gifted youth for "we neither find him early enough, nor guide him properly, nor educate him adequately in our high schools."

The general education required to meet the first two of the above objectives must be carefully planned for *all* American youth. In so doing we should remember that curiosity is more widely distributed than innate love of knowledge and, consequently, it may be the basic motivation necessary to bring out in the vast mass of our pupils the willingness to immerse themselves in our cultural heritage. "One of the most important jobs of the schools," writes Mr. Conant in his discussion of this area, "is to instill into the students the concepts not only of political but social democracy . . . the weight of the school must be thrown heavily against all forms of snobbery . . . general education for American democracy, let us never forget, is to be tested in terms of adult behavior."

In considering the third objective, education for a career, he observes that "the nation needs men and women well educated in specific careers almost as much as it needs citizens with a proper general education for democracy." These must, he believes, be chosen on the basis of pure merit. This will necessitate a vastly expanded guidance program and a reworking of the economic foundations of education.

The economic barriers to education must be lowered. There are, according to Mr. Conant, two means for doing this: first,

provide centers for advanced study locally and second, offer more scholarships. He disagrees with the President's Commission on Higher Education in that he believes we should have an immediate objective of better students rather than increased numbers. He agrees with those who advocate community colleges and goes into detail regarding their organization, financial foundations, and problems of securing public status. He makes a clever attack on the widespread belief that will power of the Horatio Alger sort rather than talent is the driving force toward excellence. He hopes that we may come to the day "when in a typical American high school boys and girls will determine their future educational plans largely in terms of their ability and their real interests, not in terms of parental wishes or of monetary and social ambitions."

What Mr. Conant has to say is of utmost importance to every American who cares about the future of the democratic way of life. His ideas are sound and heartening. Unfortunately, one cannot help wondering whether we can progress far enough, quickly enough to survive. This is a book which should be read by all school people, especially those responsible for planning the curriculums of secondary schools and colleges and those who are training our future teachers. In addition, it should be studied by lay leaders, especially community leaders and industrialists.

ROBERT BAYLESS NORRIS
Cortland (N.Y.) State Teachers College



FILMSTRIPS by Verna M. Falconer. McGraw-Hill Company. 538 pp. \$5.00.

Written by a former teacher who is now consultant in visual presentations in New York City, this book is a detailed and excellent analysis of filmstrips which are a necessity for a school desiring to use visual aids effectively. It may well be that after further trial of the various teaching devices

available the filmstrips and still transparencies will be found to have more possibilities as teaching devices than other types of projection such as the film.

Teachers and students are often bothered by such terms as "single frame" and "double frame." In this volume the author is careful to illustrate the terms used in the vocabulary of audio-visual aids. A considerable number of illustrations enliven the text and clarify it.

There are many points of excellence in the book. There is a list of producers of the aids, with the fields in which each excels. A valuable section is one which lists criteria for making selections. Explanations are given, too, for making one's own pictures. A chapter on the use of school filmstrips is excellent and accords with sound educational principles. Many samples of effective use are given.

The major portion of the book, quite fittingly, is given over to the description of film strips which are available in the different teaching subjects. In each case there is a short description of the film, the name of the distributor, whether single or double frame, whether lecture notes are available, and similar items.

Subject areas are alphabetically arranged, viz.: Agriculture, forestry, business, fine arts, foremanship, literature, science, safety, the social sciences, vocational guidance, and vocational training.

There is a splendid chapter on projection and one on extra-school use of these materials.



LEISURE TIME EDUCATION by Anna May Jones. Harper & Brothers. 235 pp. \$2.75.

So much we have heard in recent years of the more worthy employment of leisure time. This involves one of the cardinal principles of education sponsoring our progressive classroom activity. Anna May Jones is an Educational and Vocational

Counselor in the New York City Public Schools. Here she has made available for useful adoption *A Handbook of Creative Activities for Teachers and Group Leaders*. It is an exceedingly serviceable volume, easy to handle and the material organized for ready reference. How true it is that our youth require help in the "best selection, pursuit and enjoyment of their leisure time."

This book is full of practical suggestions and workable procedures. One of the best features demonstrates how the regular curriculum can contribute motivation for the securing of measurable results. The major emphasis, however, is on the informal schedules of the extra-curricular program. Throughout these pages there is evidence that wholesome creative activities are available in every school that has strong leadership. The rudimental drives of youth are served when play is made both exhilarating and purposeful; and the outline of suitable arrangements introduced in this syllabus will be welcomed in communities where this type of instructional inspiration has not yet been generated.

A valuable section is devoted to an evaluation of findings emanating from investigations made in 6 New York high schools and a vocational institution. The author's introductory remarks indicate a commendable interest shown in receiving reports of comparable efforts made elsewhere to implement an effective leisure time program. There are numerous objective details, with reference to supplementary data that can be easily secured by those who desire to go deeper into the subject.

On the jacket is a stimulating design—revealing the paraphernalia of leisure time programs. Here can be seen masks, musical instruments, drawing tools, kodak, tennis racket, radio microphone, etc. The very sight of these gives the student an impulse to go forth and take advantage of the multiplicity of forces that can be utilized in every American community for the development of the personality traits and

character qualities that are so conducive to successful living.

The bibliography at the end is exceptionally extensive and attractive. It reveals in a most convincing manner this great potential field of educational service that awaits and invites those who are earnest in their desire to do the greatest good to the greatest number.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

The Pennsylvania State College



SOME THOUGHTS ON UNIVERSITY EDUCATION by Sir Richard Livingstone. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, England. 1948. 28 pp. \$1.00.

What should be the function of a University? Should it be the creator and moulder of the spiritual and moral life of the world? Should it formulate ideals and, through its own institutional power or through the vision of those it trains, make them the essence of the moral and political life of mankind? Should the university "make a new social order" after the fashion of the vision it has seen? Or, should the university worship one god and him alone—Truth, sure in the conviction that any deviation from complete devotion to its shrine will court disaster?

This is the heart of Sir Richard Livingstone's essay. It is basically critical. Though recognizing the advances which the modern university boasts, he faces the crucial question of whether the heart is right. Only if the essence of university life is true can all else be evaluated. And Dr. Livingstone is not sure that the present-day university can claim to be truly good. It does devote itself to science and to the humanities, but in both areas it can and does fail to do what the university, by its nature and place in the social pattern, can and should.

The university is the heart of modern civilization. "If you wished to destroy modern civilization, the most effective way to

do it would be to abolish universities." But their weakness is blatantly apparent. The high aim of the university, in the words of Newman, is "training good members of society." It "should train men to be not merely masters of special fields but to know what Plato meant when he wished his ruling class to learn to be 'spectators of all time and all existence.'" "Its graduates should go into life not so much expert in the battle-cries and tactics of the moment, as conscious of the deeper issues at stake and of the values involved in them. . . . If it does not undertake the task, in the end we may find, as in Russia and in Hitler's Germany, that the State will dictate a philosophy of life to the nation; or we shall drift with no philosophy at all. Either alternative is dismal."

The reason that the university fails to turn out graduates who are "good members of society" in this sense lies in the fact that its emphasis has been upon the parts while that which is most needed today is a view of the whole. It graduates "scholars," specialists, masters of less and less. As such, they do not direct civilization, but "serve the aims of others."

Dr. Livingstone recognizes the fact that in America (he is the vice-chancellor of Oxford University) some thought has been given to this problem and that our great universities are earnestly struggling to find a solution. He welcomes this and would have English universities consider most carefully what is being attempted here. But, both we and the British must find a way to bring our undergraduates to meditate upon "God, the human mind, and the *Summum Bonum*." In fact, we must help our students to build a philosophy of life, even though when they leave our walls their philosophy will be most tentative and provisional.

At this point Dr. Livingstone fires his big gun. The universities should "make a study of religion or of philosophy an essential element of every university course. . . .

By religion I mean a study of what we should think of the meaning and ultimate nature of the universe; how, in the light of the view we form, we should live; the different answers which have been given to these questions by great religious thinkers. Philosophy treats the general problems of religion from a more detached and general point of view."

The best introduction to this study is Plato's *Republic*. We may not agree with Plato at every point, but in the *Republic* are discussed the great problems of all times: "what is goodness; why should men believe in it; in what kind of state can the good life be best lived; what part in the state should be played by education; what is the right kind of education; what different ideals rule individuals and states, and to what kind of lives do they lead?" These are "the most important problems both for the individual and the world; and to be unaware of them or to have no rational view of them is to be uneducated. If the university ignores them, it will not train 'good members of society.'"

This little book has only 28 pages, but it is one of the clearest and most challenging analyses of the problems facing the modern university that has appeared in a long time. Dr. Livingstone wants the university to remain devoted to Truth, but to Truth that is dynamic. He pleads for a university that is a living force in the modern world, not a mere tool of other's plans. And he sees the answer in those areas of human thought, religion and philosophy, which are suffering today at the hands of science and a humanities that has lost its humanity. Several readings and much careful consideration of this little book will help many a university student, and also a university professor, to find that orientation which he has tended to lose on the modern campus.

S. E. FROST, JR.

Brooklyn College

ENGLISH

MODERN ENGLISH AND ITS HERITAGE by Margaret M. Bryant. The Macmillan Company, 5.00.

Those of us who were familiar with Dr. Bryant's *A Functional English Grammar* and *English in the Law Courts* were eagerly awaiting the publication of *Modern English and Its Heritage*. We knew her unquestioned scholarship in the field and her talent, sharpened by years of teaching, to make technical English interesting to the college student, and expected much from this, her latest work. But, I must confess, I for one was not prepared for what happened. It was this way.

I received a copy of the book during the Christmas holidays and had it on my desk, intending to devote part of my vacation to its analysis. But my son, an engineering student at Columbia, saw it. He picked it up, thumbed through it, and I was left with no other alternative than to wait until he was ready to let me work on it. He read it through with avid interest, read passages to his mother and me, and asked more questions than either of us could answer.

When a college student devotes part of his Christmas vacation to the reading of a college text not in his field of specialization, you can be certain that the author has achieved that for which writers of texts strive, often without success. The material is presented so as to catch the interest of the student, but there is no sacrifice of scholarship.

I have verified this judgment by reading the book myself, now that my son has returned to his classes. Dr. Bryant makes the material interesting to the student without writing down to him, and she has taken much difficult and usually "dry" substance which she infuses with life and a degree of the dramatic. It is a fine job.

But, a word about the presentation of the material is in order. First, the book is

designed as a text for courses dealing with the development of the English language. With English tending more and more to become a universal language and the growing pride of English-speaking people in their language, it becomes necessary that thinking people have a knowledge of "its position 'yesterday'—the yesterday stretching back more than a thousand years." This book aims to give some of that understanding.

The book is divided into four parts. The first examines the linguistic heritage of English from its Indo-European origins through the Germanic, Old English, and Middle English to modern usages. Part two turns to an analysis of speech sounds and letters "as units of oral and written English." Here enough is presented, and clearly, to inform and interest without bewildering the student. Part three handles grammar and usage. In this section the student is appraised of the fact that English is alive and growing, that what was bad usage yesterday is accepted today, that he is speaking a rich language the possibilities of which have by no means been exhausted. Part four turns to the origin of words, the changes through which their meanings have gone over the centuries, and some of the problems of word usage such as are handled by semanticists and other scientists of language.

There is much here that will interest and prove valuable to the layman, much that will stimulate him to be more circumspect as he uses his language. This is also the book for which many teachers of the subject have been waiting—a text that covers the subject as thoroughly as is needed for an introductory course, covers it in a scholarly fashion and interestingly. What more can one ask of a book?

S. E. FROST, JR.

Brooklyn College



FRENCH

CREATIVE FRENCH by Vernon Mallinson.
London, England, William Heinemann,
Ltd. 204 pp. 90 cents.

This is the first volume of a series of three designed to teach French by a "creative" or oral method. It is destined for use in English schools, apparently in the upper grades, and especially in schools for boys; this would not, as the author points out, bar its use in those for girls.

The simpler facts of grammar are presented inductively at first, then followed by good explanations with copious examples. Only the present indicative, future, and present perfect tenses are presented in the volume under review. The vocabulary is large, is not confined in any sense to any word count, and contains many words not found in grammars made for use in our schools. A complete vocabulary is not given at the back of the book, but we do find several lists of useful words.

An attempt is made, and successfully, to present what we term "cultural material" in the text. The whole book is held together by placing the scenes of all the lessons in a school for boys in France; even the two plays given in the text are to be acted by the students as a part of their class work. Nothing is spared to make the boys use orally the French they are taught in class. Pronunciation is taught by imitation of the teacher, and nowhere in the book do we find phonetic symbols. There are, however, exercises in pronunciation.

In any estimate of this book one must never forget that it was written for use in English schools, where more time is given to language study than in the United States. I personally doubt if this book would be as useful and successful in our schools as many of the books published in this country. But the book is well written, interesting, and pedagogically sound. I am sure that it would produce good results in schools

where conditions of study and length of time for language study compare favorably to those in English schools. Any teacher of French can certainly get some excellent ideas for teaching by reading the book and studying carefully its procedures.

W.M. MARION MILLER

Miami University



PSYCHOLOGY

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY by Robert A. Davis. The McGraw-Hill Book Co. 349 pp., \$3.00.

Robert Davis in his *Educational Psychology* has divided his text material into two sections, Part I providing a complete overview of the development of the learner, and Part II giving the teacher or student a rather complete picture of what is involved in directing the learning process, gaining the required skills, and attaining the goal.

In Part I physical growth and health, scholastic ability, interests, attitudes, emotional and social maturity are covered. Important as physical growth is in understanding the child, perhaps Dr. Davis has spent too much time in proportion on some of the details, whereas he profitably could have expanded a little more on the problems of emotions, attitudes and interests. All the chapters in this section are of utmost importance in understanding the child's behavior. Dr. Davis has brought out the really significant factors with striking clearness. Particularly well done is his chapter on emotional and social maturity. None of us who deal with children can overlook the place of emotions in the development of the child and in his performance record, nor can we minimize the emotional reaction of the teacher to the school situation and to the individual child. From the beginning every chapter adds to the understanding of behavior. Every experienced teacher or parent will profit from reading this material regardless of how

long he has taught or been a parent. Even the student who has had a course in child psychology will find the approach refreshing and informative.

Part II, dealing with directing learning, includes preparing materials for learning, cultivating abilities, testing, maintaining learning gains, making conditions favorable for learning, and using incentives. The approach to the whole problem is sound psychologically. The preparation of materials is taken from the viewpoint of the child's readiness to learn. Davis goes on to show how it is possible to cultivate abilities and improve skills. He demonstrates that proficiency in any field can be increased by learning. He has good chapters on the place of testing in teaching, and of measurement in learning. His discussion of how progressively to keep learning going on is rather unique. It is a timely presentation as schooling without an understanding of the process of continuous learning is often a waste of time. The last chapter on incentives could have been expanded so as to include more of the overall problem of motivation; however, the twenty-four pages in the text are well worth digesting. As we all know, there is very little learning without motivation. We teachers have frequently neglected to emphasize the importance of incentives in the learning process. Davis forcibly reminds us of the possibilities of increasing production through studied motivation.

Of all the recent psychologies written this text seems to go through the material better than most books with a direct line drive from beginning to end that hits the mark. It is well written, has plenty of illustrative material, and the language is simple enough so that any college student can understand it. From the viewpoint of subject matter and point of view, every teacher could profit from reading it. It is a text worthy of the man who wrote "The Psychology of Learning" in 1935.

GORDON C. HANSON
University of Wichita

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY by Harvey A. Peterson, Stanley S. Marzolf, and Nancy Bayley. The Macmillan Company. 550 pp. \$4.00.

This book is written as a text for college students in the field of Educational Psychology. It gives a general treatment of the entire field and as such would serve nicely for a survey course. For advanced work it needs much in the way of supplementary materials which the authors attempt to provide by the use of chapter bibliographies. Special attention is given to cooperative group learning and laws of learning which are being stressed by many writers at the present time. There is a definite attempt to use actual case studies of teaching for making functional the relation between teaching situations and the learning processes.

This volume consists of eighteen chapters covering the following general topics: the field of educational psychology, social development of youth, mental development in infancy and childhood, mental development in adolescence, experimental evidence for cooperation in learning, social learning, motivation, case studies in teaching and learning, individual learning, learning motor skills, retention, mental hygiene, hygiene of work, measurement of personality, measurement of intelligence, measurement of achievement, heredity and environment, and vocational guidance.

The book contains thirty-nine tables and fifty-four figures which serve as excellent aids to learning. At the close of nearly every chapter there is an excellent summary of the chapter, a list of questions and exercises for the student, a list of recommended readings, and a list of films which apply to that particular chapter. There is also an index.

The authors state that they have graded the recommended readings at the ends of the various chapters in an attempt to meet individual student needs. They not only point out the more difficult readings, but they also give brief statements regarding many of the references which informs the

reader of the type of material included. The references are not in an annotated form.

LLOYD N. SMITH
Indiana State Teachers College



SOCIAL STUDIES

THE AGE OF THE GREAT DEPRESSION by Dixon Wechter. The Macmillan Company. 342 pp. \$5.00.

With the period of a dozen years, 1929-1941, dramatic events happened, events perhaps not exceeded in another equal time of peace in our history. The chairman of the Research Group of the Huntington Library, who is the author of this book, has taught English in several prominent American universities and, for a year, was visiting professor of American history at the University of Sydney in Australia. With this background he is in an unusual position to picture adequately the events of this thrilling and fast-moving dozen years.

Dramatic events a-plenty are here for recording. The author has a striking style, and is able to give vivid impressions. The opening chapter, "From Riches to Rags," for example, portrays vigorously "poverty in the midst of plenty," "wall street gambling," the rise of chain stores, technocracy. There was then talk of \$750,000 necklaces, \$15,000,000 theatres, 16,000,000 share days on the stock market, too soon followed by Hoover blankets, Hoovervilles, apple selling, soup lines, business failures, and unemployment.

All of these normally called for an examination of the bases of American living and for a new design.

As one reads the chapter on the changes in the presidency, the hundred days of bank failures, rapid descent of prices, bank holidays, bold measures to afford relief, the plans of the "New Deal," alphabetical agencies, the NRA, and other now half-forgotten events and programs of the

period, he discovers in retrospect the rapidity with which history was being made and the speed at which fundamental changes were effected.

There is an excellent chapter on the problems of youth and how the government attacked them. No less is there emphasis on the plight of the older members of the nation. Changes in reading habits, changes in writing, brought out in distinct relief the ills of society, and multiform plans were evoked to alleviate them. Progress in science was symbolized by the Chicago and New York expositions, each with attendance running into the millions. The "New Deal's" quest for social justice is described in detail. Again the problems of peace and war became imminent.

After twelve years of struggle for social arrangements which were to improve the manner of life of the citizens of our country, the new energies were turned toward the clouded horizons of Europe. The change in emphasis which life in America underwent is significantly expressed in the closing lines of the book: "Once again the quest for social justice had been engulfed in the urgency of another great war." And so the curtain fell, at least for the time, upon social change as a fundamental issue and was turned toward the insistent problems of survival.



WALDEN Two by B. F. Skinner. The Macmillan Company. 266 pp. \$3.00.

Sir Thomas Moore had his Utopia and Henry David Thoreau his Walden Pond; but it takes Professor B. F. Skinner to make Walden Two, an idyllic little community in the Middle West of the United States, so vivid and real that the reader is reluctant when he finds the novel is drawing to a close.

While Walden Two exists only in the imagination of the author, the story is based on good, solid psychological and economic theories which are applicable to present day

American life. Nothing in the story is impossible. In fact, it is a type of dream which may be translated into reality.

The novel relates in an interesting manner how two veterans who were weary of the traditional ways of life wished to know and live the good life of which they had dreamed when they were rendering service to their country while overseas. In their search one of them remembered one of his psychology professors who in turn introduced them to Walden Two. Then it was that they found that for which they had been searching.

This ideal community, Walden Two, is built on a program which is "essentially a religious movement freed of any dallying with the supernatural and inspired by a determination to build heaven on earth." The leader in affairs, who is also the founder of the community, is a wizard in "behavioral engineering." He provides a program of life where there is no hustling, worrying, long working hours, jealousy, anger, or fear. Each individual has opportunities to pursue his interests and hobbies, to engage in leisure time activities, and to remain alert and creative. This program also eliminates frustrations, replaces in-grown family emotions with loyalty to a larger group, and directs in the practices of self control. Even the women are free from their age old subjection to men.

The reader finds himself absorbed in the manner of living in Walden Two. In fact, he wishes he might dwell there. And why should he not? Who is there that does not thrill in the challenge of new and exciting theories?

LORENA B. STRETCH
Baylor University



TRAVEL

FOOTLOOSE IN FRANCE by Horace Sutton. Rinehart and Company, Inc. 382 pp. \$4.00.

This volume, by the travel editor of the *Saturday Review of Literature*, departs in

form and content from the traditional tourist's book. Consciously he senses a changed tourist stream. From the old days of travel by the wealthy and cultured who were interested in "naves, clerestories, flamboyant windows, and trefoil-headed trifoliums" the scene changes to "an esoteric lot who jabbered in their own patois as soda-jerks, hash-slingers. . . ." The author considers travel "a recreation like going to the theatre or listening to the radio" . . . "travel ought to make good reading as well as being fun to do." This is the story of post-war France, life as it is lived now by the people from day to day.

Almost seventy-five pages described the hotels of Paris and the provinces, these reprinted from the *Guide Michelin*, and including "only the listings for resorts and principal cities of tourist interest." Classifications and prices are those set by the French government. Directions are given for securing prices which, necessarily, vary from year to year.

In common with several other guide books published since the closing of World War II, there are very specific instructions regarding passports, manner of transportation, "how to eat in French" (six pages), or in other words, the vocabulary which

is needed to order a meal. There is a two page list of the cathedrals (with a statement of the damage which was done to each during the war).

Sixty pages are given to descriptions of Paris while more than two hundred pages depict the provinces, a better proportion than in most volumes in which Paris monopolizes the space. Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, The Pyrenees, Provence, The Riviera, Corsica, The Alps, Burgundy and Alsace are included. There are omissions. One will look for Limoges in vain. Lovers of china will deplore the omission. Likewise Sevres will be missed. But tables show comparative sizes of collars in France and the United States; the best years for good wines.

The photographs are, on the whole, excellent. And they are abundant. The reproductions by the offset process, leave something to be described. The index is satisfactory. The book is chatty, and the neophyte who uses it will find many a helpful hint, and many a money-saving direction. The volume may lack in thoroughness, but it covers a wide scope, and it is a very useful book to pack in one's luggage when going abroad, especially if it is supplemented with one or two of the other recent guidebooks.

"It's MY right-of-way," muttered Red.
But the other guy came right ahead.
Red found that his brakes
Didn't have what it takes.
He didn't stop QUICK—he stopped DEAD!

Brief Browsings in Books

Dangerous Trends is the title of a thoughtful and alert volume written by Porter Sargent and which is a reprinting from the Introduction to his Handbook of Private Schools. The sub-title is descriptive: *How Undercurrents Economic and Political Affect Education*. The author's comments are never dreary, but are always needling and thought-provoking. He argues for more support for education, the plight of the colleges being perilous with rising costs of operation. He is critical of some of the programs of colleges and universities. Conformists, with independence discouraged, with individualism suppressed and teachers tamed, bow to those who "call the tune." Subsidizing educators whether in yearbooks or even in such reports as The President's Commission are seen as dangerous. A critical eye is turned upon the increasing managerial control and control of education by business interests. A new danger is slanting, repressing, or distorting information by control of communications which serve to create opinion. There is a final section which analyzes what is wrong and what *might be*. The volume is published by its author at 11 Beacon Street, Boston, Massachusetts, and sells for \$2.00. It is well worth the price for the frank and original description of our country's education. One looks forward to these annual educational documents on Education somewhat as one expects to be informed by the annual reports of the State of the Union.

One of the important series of pamphlets on public affairs is the Headline Series of the Foreign Policy Association. Each, with 64 pages, is sold at the uniform price of thirty-five cents, and interprets a single

aspect of world affairs. The issue for January-February, 1949, appeared under the double titles, *Man and Food: The Lost Equation?* and *Food and Diplomacy*. Orders may be addressed to the Association at 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, New York. "The world will have no freedom from either want or war unless it solves its population problem," C. Lester Walker declares in the early section of the monograph. He sees a world population increasing 21,000,000 souls a year, creating an ever-present race between population and adequate food supply. He believes that democracies cannot endure when the pressure for food becomes too great and that controlled economies are necessary as populations near the subsistence level. Wars have their inception in the struggle for *lebensraum* needed to supply basic nutritional wants and needs. Blair Bolles points out that nations are now co-operating to increase the production of food in the world's new "Nutrition Era." Population control seems demanded.

Character Education, published by The Palmer Foundation, Box 621, Texarkana, Arkansas-Texas, in cooperation with the Hugh Birch-Horace Mann Fund of the N.E.A., is a survey of practice in the public schools of the United States. This monograph of 32 pages sells for 50 cents. When the Palmer Foundation was established by Mr. and Mrs. Palmer, it was decided that a survey of the present status of character education in the different states should be made, to determine methods of approach. Dr. H. L. Smith, Dean Emeritus of the School of Education of Indiana University, was chosen as Director of Research. In this

short analysis of the present situation are given the attitudes of school executives toward character education, opinions on methods to be used. Twenty patterns of character in use in public schools are described. Finally, suggestions are given for inaugurating a program of character education in the public schools.

The Problem Drinker by Joseph Hirsh, Executive Director of the Research Council on the Problems of Alcohol, is a scientific treatment of a moot question. It is a far cry from the old temperance instruction on alcohol given in many schools. The author is an editorial consultant for *Fortune* magazine. The preface is written by A. J. Carlson, Past President, The American Association for the Advancement of Science. There is a brief history of alcoholism, a description of alcohol and how it works, and its effects. An excellent chapter on "Alcohol: Fact and Fiction" exhibits the scientific point of view. The debate between those who think of the drinker as a sinner and those who consider him a sick man is resolved. The "cure" is evaluated with reference to its effectiveness. Alcoholics Anonymous is the subject of an entire chapter. There is a survey of what has been done for the drinker, and what must still be done for him. Hopeful signs are pointed out. Science teachers will welcome this book, based on established fact, and the layman in education will be interested in the opinion of scientific workers on the growing problem of the user of intoxicants. Published by Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 270 Madison Avenue, New York City 16, the volume is priced at \$3.00.

Parent and Child is a new book by Catherine Mackenzie, authoritative writer on child development for the *New York Times*. It is probable that her writings on mental hygiene have reached more people than those of any other writer on mental hygiene. She holds to no "ism" but sets forth

opinions, based on the latest developments and of the most recent authorities. The book deals with children from infancy through the "bobby-sox," teen age. Parents have eagerly sought Mackenzie's advice because she talks good sense. Special chapters on emotional problems, discipline, delinquency, work and play, manners and morals, home and school, yes, even the role of grandmothers and fathers, are included. The style is easy, readable, and vivid. Many examples are given which add concreteness and interest. The volume is recommended for the general reader, and especially for the one who has been disturbed and annoyed by the extreme positions of those mental hygienists who have seemed to veer far away from the experiences of parents who have children in the process of "growing up." The volume of 333 pages sells for \$2.95. There is an adequate reference and reading list, many of them not to be found in those books of authors who consider every child a problem. Teachers would do well to own this book. William Sloan Associates, 119 West 57th Street, New York 19, New York, is the address of the publisher.

Plain Words, a Guide to the Use of English, written by Sir Ernest Gowers, is published in America by British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York. The 94-page cloth bound volume sells for \$1.15. In writing of this book in the *New York Times* Sunday Magazine, Marvyn Jones quotes from it: "Personnel, though in theory they are men and women, have only to be called personnel to lose their full status as human beings. . . . They do not go, they proceed . . . they cannot eat, they can only consume; they perform ablutions; instead of homes, they have places of residence, in which, instead of living, they are domiciled. Sir Ernest Gowers was asked by the British Government to prepare this short manual for British public officials, to show

them how to write briefly, directly and concisely—in the language of the common people. The examples are taken from documents written by British officials during the last few years. There are chapters on legal English, the elements, correctness, the

handling of words, and punctuation. Much of the small volume is concerned with the choice of words, indicating how to avoid the superfluous, how to choose familiar words, and how to use concrete words. It is packed with good advice to writers.

FOREST FIRES

LILLA RACHEL PALMER

Forest fires are burning tonight.
I see the flames so red reach high.
Decades of life are giving way
Their all to make this mad display.
In sympathy the wind doth sigh
That trees should yield to such a plight.

In souls of men strange flames arise
And fragrant smokes accumulate,
And reddish tints of passion burn,
There kindled strong for no return.
Thus tuned, a care must mold this fate,
Or men, like trees, meet their demise.

Behind the By-Lines

(Continued from page 260)

is by Tao-Chin Ch'ang who is now Professor of Education, National Central University, Nanking, China. He has been Director-General of the National Federation of Educational Organizations in China since 1943. He translated Dewey's educational works into Chinese.

Clifford L. Bishop is chairman of the Department of Education and Director of the Laboratory School of Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri. His article *The Future of Teacher Internship* is a recent study on a movement of great interest in the pre-service education of teachers.

M. M. Chambers, Director of the Foreign Universities Project of the American Council on Education, is the author of fifteen books and three hundred magazine articles. He has in preparation a comprehensive handbook of facts and figures about universities in all countries outside the United States. This should appear late in 1949. His present article is *State Constitutional and Statutory Limitations on College Admission Policies*.

Carl Bode, Professor of English at the University of Maryland, is author of *The Academic Grab-Bag*. He has edited two volumes of Thoreau's works and has written a number of magazine articles on American literature. He is now writing a new book which will deal with the American lyceum.

Academic Freedom: A New Perspective is by S. E. Frost, Jr. The author is known to our readers through former articles and book reviews published in *The Forum*. His article opens anew the question of the purposes and the limitations of freedom in our schools.

The Battle of the Senate Gallery is a short story by Gilbert Byron and is a continuation of the theme of *Mr. Blodgett Goes to Washington*, which was published

in the January issue. Mr. Byron now devotes his time primarily to writing.

Neo-Scholasticism in High School Education is an article critical of recent tendencies in the philosophy of secondary education. Mr. Garstin is vice principal and boys' counselor in Kimberly Junior-Senior High School in British Columbia. He has published several articles in magazines in the United States and Canada.

A Call to Poets came from Mrs. Phyllis Taunton Wood of London, England. Mrs. Wood toured the United States as a lecturer on poetry and other literature last fall. She is a poet and painter, the wife of S. H. Wood, C.B., M.C., of the National Ministry of Education of England. She prepared an anthology, *The Heavenly Vision*, for the Student Christian Movement in 1935. In 1934 a limited edition of *Four Gates*, a volume of poems, was published, and in 1944 another, *Dark Valley*, appeared.

Alfred R. Hedrick, of Lewis and Clark College, Portland, Oregon, a contributor of articles and verse to several magazines is the author of *A Critic's Prayer*. Mr. Gerhard Friedrich, of State College, Pennsylvania, a frequent contributor of his poetry, has sent us for this issue his *Lines Written before a Lecture on Emerson*. James C. Solovay, a teacher of English at Fort Hamilton High School, Brooklyn, New York, presents in this issue *Sonnet to Youth*. He is known to our readers through former contributions.

Louise D. Gunn, who will also be recognized as a former contributor, is a teacher of English and dramatics in the Hackett Junior High School, Albany, New York. Her poem is *Sparrow*.

Again we present book reviews on education and kindred subjects from a group of reviewers representing leading institutions of our country. The reviews are both descriptive and critical. Reviewers are asked

to give an honest appraisal of the volumes on which they write. The aim is to inform readers accurately about books which they may be interested in possessing.

Lack of space prevents the presentation of all reviews in extended form. In *Brief Browsing in Books* will be found notices

of volumes which may have arrived too late for presentation in complete reviews or for which there was not sufficient room.

The Editor

The Song of the Wind

GLADYS VONDY ROBERTSON

I like the sound of the howling wind . . .
It sweeps my heart
and leaves it naked as the trees that bend
when the leaves depart.

It send an aching loneliness through
the fibered cells . . .
I hear in its murmurs the undertone
of mourning bells.

I like the sound of the howling wind
as it sweeps along
on its endless way in the universe,
moaning its song.



The EDUCATIONAL FORUM

March, 1949

NUMBER 3



Volume XIII

PART 2

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AS H. G. WELLS VIEWED EDUCATION
Eddy S. Kalin

Published by KAPPA DELTA PI, an Honor Society in Education



The Educational Forum



THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM is priced to members of Kappa Delta Pi at \$1.50; to non-members at \$2.00 a year. Single copies are 75¢ each. Remittance should be made to the Recorder-Treasurer, Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio.

VOLUME XIII

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THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

VOLUME XIII

MARCH



NUMBER 3

1949

Message from the Executive President

WM. MCKINLEY ROBINSON

WHEN you talk to the professors in Poland," those of us who attended the Atlantic City Convocation were told by the CIER representative, "they do not ask for food, even though I did not see a glass of milk all the time I was there, or butter or any of the things we take for granted. They did not ask for clothes although they are threadbare. They wanted to know what has happened in their fields since before the war. They have been in an intellectual black out. They could receive no periodicals, nor books, nor literature during the war, and they do not know what has gone on." The 200 gift subscriptions of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM to leaders in these war devastated lands is in part Kappa Delta Pi's answer to this need.

In the intervening months, more and more the emphasis has been shifted from one world to two worlds, but from behind the Iron Curtain we have this evidence of at least some unity, some yearning for an exchange of ideas and information. In the political realm as exemplified by the U N, the most optimistic are now admitting that attempts at co-operation have been over-

shadowed by frank opposition. In the specialized agencies of the U N which deal primarily with fundamental needs and therefore common causes, the one bloc of nations refuses to participate. Yet very few accept these facts as the death knell of the U N or its agencies. They are too valuable as clearing houses and sounding boards, as media of the exchange of ideas.

Did you ever look about our own land and wonder how much of what on the surface seems co-operation is really merely an exchange of ideas? Our common heritage and common purpose somewhat blinds us to this fact. In the fields of education and culture, those of concern to Unesco, some of our students of group dynamics are saying there is relatively little real and deliberate co-operation among ourselves. You Kappa Delta Pi members as potential leaders in education for this next generation may find your challenge in sharing in this shift from a technique essentially one of an exchange of ideas and information to one of genuinely co-operative effort. When working on the local level, if it be not too late, it may then be applied on the international level.

From The General Office

THE revised edition of the Officer's Manual has come from the printer and been sent to the chapters (a copy for each officer of the chapter). If for any reason the copies have not been received the counselor should write to the General Office, asking for additional copies needed.

If additional copies of the Constitution and By-Laws are needed for present members the Recorder-Treasurer will be glad to send them. Each initiate will receive a copy in the routine connected with his initiation. Former members may wish the Revision of 1948.

Many complimentary letters are being received about THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM both from our country and abroad. We appreciate these comments and suggestions from educational leaders. A highly-placed official from abroad commented, "THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM does not tell people what to do in the classroom tomorrow, so much as it explores directions in the long range of years ahead." We hope that the articles are immediately effective, even though it has been the policy to print articles of fundamental concern rather than on the day by day techniques. Many chapters are using the articles in their meetings, and professors are using them for collateral readings. The recent article by Dr. Leonard L. Bowman has been published in digest form in the Santa Barbara *News-Press*. Quotations have been asked for on the article by President Eisenhower on reprints for classes.

When thinking of graduation presents why not send a friend a year's subscription to THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM? Or purchase a bronze Kappa Delta Pi wall plaque? Or buy a member a Kappa Delta Pi emblem?

The list of life members is growing. At

the low cost for life membership (which includes a life subscription to THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM as well) one secures much excellent reading matter at low cost.

Chapter historians or secretaries should send their news for the May issue of THE FORUM as soon as this issue arrives. It is hoped that the issue may be mailed in ample time to reach subscribers before the close of the present academic year.

Executive President William McKinley Robinson and Recorder-Treasurer E. I. F. Williams will represent Kappa Delta Pi at the national meeting of the United States National Commission for UNESCO which will be held in Cleveland, March 31, April 1 and 2. The Director General of UNESCO will come from Paris to address the meeting, and others high in the councils of the UNESCO Secretariat will be on the program. Representation in the meetings will be by invitations which are being extended to colleges, universities, and organizations which have membership in the Commission. Leading public school officials will also be invited.

Lists have been completed for mailing 200 gift subscriptions of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM to foreign countries, repeating a gesture of international understanding begun a year ago. The Executive Council voted to send free subscriptions to outstanding leaders abroad, aiming so far as possible to reach a list of persons not included last year. With a few exceptions the names entered on the subscription lists this year are different from that of last year.

Names were secured from chapters of Kappa Delta Pi, members of The Executive Council, members of the Laureate chapter, and from persons having wide international contacts here and abroad.

Many letters of appreciation were received

from those who have received the gift subscriptions.

As this is being written plans are practically complete for the annual dinner of Kappa Delta Pi which will be served at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel in Philadelphia, at 6:30, Tuesday evening, March 29. Particulars were given in Part 2 of the January issue. Tickets are \$3.50. They may be secured at Registration Headquarters of the American Association of School Administrators at Philadelphia, or by calling the Recorder-Treasurer at the Bellevue-Stratford. It is hoped that the volume by President Carmichael will be autographed and for sale following the dinner. The subject will be "The Changing Role of Higher Education."

The regular winter meeting of The Executive Council will begin Monday morning, March 28, at 9:00 A.M. Any business which the Council should consider ought to be presented before that time. It is probable that sessions will continue till Tuesday.

Officers of chapters are reminded that circulars of information for initiates, candidate information cards, and permanent record cards may be secured on request to the Recorder-Treasurer.

Plans are taking form for the William Chandler Bagley Teacher Exchange. Final

announcements will be ready in printed form soon and will be sent to chapters. Progress is also being made on the Research Awards.

The Editorial Board of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM had a meeting in New York City. Policies were discussed and suggestions for articles from educational leaders. Action was taken recommending that the subscription price of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM be increased, this action to be transmitted to The Executive Council. The consensus was that the present format of THE FORUM should be continued and that the general editorial policy of the magazine be continued. With this issue a new series of articles is beginning, in accordance with suggestions from the Editorial Board.

Recently chapters have ordered the standard bookkeeping forms which have been prepared by the certified public accountants, Ernst and Ernst, in cooperation with the Recorder-Treasurer.

With the increased numbers enrolled in departments and schools of education, the number of initiates into the several chapters of Kappa Delta Pi is increasing. Kappa Delta Pi now has initiated a larger number than any other honor society in the world, with one possible exception, an honor society in the academic field.

The latest pronouncement on a subject is not the same thing as the last word on it.
—SIR RICHARD LIVINGSTONE

The Chapters' Vote on Amendments

THE Budget Committee of the Convocation of Kappa Delta Pi in Atlantic City, February, 1948, reported a probable deficit for the next biennium and recommended that the Society raise the initiation fees and dues. Two constitutional amendments were presented, the first, that the initiation fee be raised from \$6.50 to \$7.50 and dues from \$1.50 to \$2, the initiation fee for Alumni chapters from \$4 to \$4.50. This amendment was defeated in the convocation by a vote of ninety in favor and thirty-nine against. A two-thirds favorable vote of the Convocation is required to amend the constitution. One hundred and fifty delegates were present at the convocation. A second proposal to change

the initiation fee from \$6.50 to \$7, dues from \$1.50 to \$2, and the Alumni initiation fee from \$4 to \$4.50 was also lost by vote of ninety-one favorable and thirteen against. The motion was then made and carried that both amendments be presented by mail to the chapters during the year. The proposed amendments were submitted in the above order to the chapters from the office of the First Vice-President, Dr. Katherine Vickery. Both amendments are again defeated. The first proposed amendment received thirty-seven votes in favor and thirty-three against. The second proposal was defeated by a vote of forty-eight favorable and thirteen against.

—Katherine Vickery

Kappa Delta Pi Wall Plaques

IT is a pleasure to announce that the Kappa Delta Pi plaques are again in stock and are for sale at \$10.00 each. The bronze is five inches in diameter and is mounted on a 7" x 9" mahogany finish base, as shown in the accompanying illustration. Orders should be addressed to the Recorder-Treasurer. A limited supply has been manufactured and those wishing them are urged to send their orders promptly. They are superb decorations for students' rooms, being reproductions of the large master plaque adopted officially by Kappa Delta Pi some years ago.

It is suggested that orders be made in duplicate. Both should be sent to the Recorder-Treasurer. One will be forwarded to the jeweler, the other retained for the office files. Check should accompany the order.



KAPPA DELTA PI PLAQUE

The Chapters Report

At the last meeting, December 14, 1948, Omega chapter, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, initiated twenty-four members. They include: Marlene Archer, Patricia Armstrong, Dorothy Bachman, Rosemary Bernard, Katherine Barnhardi, Lilly Bernheisel, John Norman Bode, Paul W. DeVore, Thelma Ellison, Jacqueline Francks, Gwyneth Gibson, John Franklin Gray, Charles Hill, Mary Jane Juvinall, James Karikas, Ardaht Kuesthardt, Charles Lanning, Charles R. Leach, Harry Allen Logston, Marcella Lonnegan, Betty Ann Meyers, Betty Ruth Mitchell, Eleanor Jean Morgan, and Abraham Parker.

Epsilon Omicron chapter of Kappa Delta Pi, State Teachers College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin, national honorary education society, initiated sixteen candidates Sunday afternoon, January 23, at Memorial Hall.

Miss Jacquelyn Moen, chapter president, presided. A charter member of the organization, Dean Leonard Haas, gave the address.

Two of the initiates are alumni, Thomas Fleming of the faculty of Stout Institute, and Lester Loken, Director of the Teaching of the Blind in 19 counties of Northwest Wisconsin. Both were members of Amphictyne, local honor society, which petitioned for membership of the college in Kappa Delta Pi in 1943. Epsilon Omicron Chapter was installed in May of that year.

Six of the initiates are seniors, namely: Barbara A. Dreher, Chippewa Falls, Wisconsin; Carl R. Gerber, Bruce; Paul James, Eau Claire; Verlin H. LaMay, Eau Claire; Kathryn M. Lenbom, Cameron, and Margaret A. Hall, New Auburn. Eight initiates are juniors: James J. Benning, Mondovi; Jean L. Jacobson, Stanley; Richard L. McGregor, Eau Claire; Raymond J. Singel, Eau Claire; Roy E.

Smith, Eau Claire; Virginia A. Watts, Exeland; David J. Wiltrot, Eau Claire.

On January 7, 1949, Gamma Chi Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi State Teachers College, Worcester, Massachusetts, held its Annual Honor Night program to which all alumni members and high ranking underclassmen were invited. The historian reports:

"Preceding the program two members-elect of the Senior class were initiated into the society.

"Our honored guest was Miss Esther Forbes, a Pulitzer Prize winner and author of the current novel, *The Running of the Tide*. She gave us a little insight into the life of an author and told us how she goes about writing a book. After an inspiring talk, a question period brought satisfactory answers to our many queries. We were most fortunate in having such an outstanding person as our speaker.

"A social hour brought a very successful and enjoyable evening to a close."

On January 5, Beta Iota chapter, Western College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan, held a meeting at which Reverend Charles K. Johnson, of the First Presbyterian Church, Kalamazoo, spoke on "Religion in Education." The main theme of his talk was that one's philosophy of life and convictions and beliefs permeate all one does as a teacher. As an educator one cannot forget that he is creating responses in the minds of the children one teaches and that one must be aware of the religious attitude toward life. He stated, however, that the religious attitude does not mean an attempt to produce Methodists, Catholics, or Presbyterians as such, but rather to produce a Christian attitude of cooperation and well adjusted and religiously sensitive individuals. For its February meeting the theme was "Education in Other Lands" at which

five students from foreign countries spoke. The participants were Emily Urguila, Bolivia; Dorothy Washington, Canada; Pen Li Kian, China; Chukuemera Modu, Liberia; and Abdul Naum, Pakistan.

The year's program of Epsilon Beta chapter, Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana, is planned around the ideals of Kappa Delta Pi, namely: Science, Fidelity to Humanity, Service and Toil. With this objective in mind the chapter has planned all of its meetings to meet these objectives, striving to make them uppermost in teaching activities. To this end the chapter believes it has been successful. The teaching efficiency of the chapter has increased and has resulted in a better student as well as a better teacher.

The October meeting was devoted to organizational work and to the planning of the year's work. Many suggestions were entertained by the officers of the chapter and from the many, the program of the chapter was decided upon. At this first meeting, it was decided that the following meeting, which was to be held in November, the first of the ideals of Kappa Delta Pi would be the chief topic of interest.

The November meeting of the chapter had as chief speaker Dr. E. C. Hunter, Professor of Education at Tulane University. His talk had as a main theme, Fidelity to Humanity. Teaching, as Dr. Hunter explained, is a profession that can be of great service to humanity. Once the teachers of America realize this, the teaching profession will become, once again, one of the most honored of professions. Following Dr. Hunter's talk refreshments were served and all of the new and older members had an opportunity to become acquainted.

The December meeting of the chapter had for its main speaker a local teacher, Mrs. Zebe Crawford. Mrs. Crawford is both a poet and a scientist. Her knowledge of Atomics and its application to modern use is extensive. Mrs. Crawford's talk was

in keeping with the ideal of Science. Her talk was of particular interest because she correlated the classical with the scientific.

At the January meeting there was a regular business meeting, a motion picture, and slides illustrating the new trends in school architecture. Members of the community were invited to the meeting to inform the public better of the recent trends. It is felt certain that a community service will be rendered. Following the meeting a sampling of public opinion was taken.

Beta Upsilon, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, invited all interested educators in the St. Louis, Missouri, area to its January meeting to hear a four-fold presentation of the topic, "Problems and Programs for the In-Service Training of Teachers." Dr. Frank L. Wright served as moderator and introduced the following panel: Mr. Leonard Steger, Superintendent of the Webster Groves schools, who outlined the curriculum program in the schools of his community; Mr. Otis See, Superintendent of the Jennings Public Schools, who described "Preparation Week" in his system; Mr. John Bracken, Superintendent of the Clayton system, who explained the purposes and accomplishments of "Klayton Kollege," an adult education program; Mr. Fred E. Brooks, Principal of Hawthorne School, who spoke in behalf of the workshop program in the University City schools.

In lieu of a February meeting, members of Beta Upsilon were urged to attend sessions of the A.A.S.A. convention held in St. Louis from February 27 to March 2. Volunteers then presented summaries of meetings they attended and discussed the exhibits viewed as a part of the March meeting.

We quote from the reporter of Alpha Sigma chapter, San Diego, California:

"Members of the Alpha Sigma chapter very enjoyably opened their initial meeting of the year in the home of their president,

Betty McGovern. A delicious planned pot luck dinner soon satisfied the whetted appetites of all. After a short but necessary business meeting, Miss Eugenia Tolson, a recently returned exchange teacher from England, gave a very enlightening and educational talk concerning her experiences at the Worthing School located in a suburb of London. Her many educational and social opportunities, including a special meeting with Queen Elizabeth, certainly made all members aware of the wonderful advantages and chances for educational growth such an 'exchange' can offer. Miss Tolson climaxed her talk by showing the group many pictures she had taken depicting English school life and English life in general.

"At our November meeting, in the cozy Scripps Cottage on campus, another outstanding speaker was presented to our group. Dr. Vickery, at present a member of our own faculty, spoke upon the 'Intercultural Relations in Education.' Dr. Vickery is conducting a program of research in intercultural relations for the State Department of Education upon the various college and university campuses in California. His talk included many of the salient points of his research and provided everyone with 'educational food for thought.' To conclude the meeting, members and guests, with food in hand, gathered around the piano and sang many of the old favorite songs known and enjoyed by all.

"Our chapter in an effort to stimulate additional interest in education is establishing two scholarships of \$25.00 each for worthy students in teacher training—both the secondary and elementary fields being included. An outstanding group of promising new people awaits initiation in January.

"Thus with the plans of an important business meeting for December and other outstanding speakers scheduled for the first of the year, our chapter is growing and going forward under the able and capable

leadership of our advisor, Miss Katherine E. Corbett, and president, Miss Betty McGovern."

A short time ago, Beta Beta chapter, University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire, invited the members of the Special Methods classes and the members of the Principles and Practices of Teaching class to a showing of the Human Growth Films, Parts I and II. The editor is Raleigh Schorling and the publisher, McGraw-Hill. The meeting was well attended and many people made favorable comments on the film. We are planning to present other programs of a similar nature so as to supplement the education courses at this university.

The film followed the experiences of Ada Adams, a shy, maladjusted teen age girl, from her entrance into English class, to the emergence of a new person, due to the efforts of a sympathetic teacher. This teacher made herself acquainted with her pupil's ability, home life, records, etc. She studied the case and tried to attack the source of the trouble. Ada's interest in art was capitalized upon to bring about her adjustment. The students in the class proved helpful. Ada became a well-adjusted individual through the sympathetic help of a teacher who was alert to the problems of her pupils.

Alpha Theta chapter, University of Akron, Akron, Ohio, reports a December meeting at which a Christmas tea and formal initiation were held. Mrs. Howard R. Evans poured for an excellent turnout of members, including alumni. The following were initiated: Mary Jane Bolin, William Cort, Mrs. Delores Rardin Jackson, Donald M. Jenkins, Miss Laurene Johns, Raymond Luyster, William Mooney, Miss Jean Repp, Sam Salem, Miss Miriam Thompson, and Mrs. Alloyce Tucker.

The following is from the President of Beta Nu chapter, Black Hills Teachers College, Spearfish, South Dakota:

"A letter from you addressed to Mrs. Estella J. Bennett, former advisor for Beta Nu chapter of Kappa Delta Pi recently reached my desk. I have recently spent a month in the hospital and since January 2, we have been snowbound. One who has never experienced a South Dakota blizzard would not know just what I mean. The radio this morning predicts another less severe than the last two. Our blizzards are really something!"

"We have had interesting meetings this year. Theodore Sparks, a Baptist minister of Lead, South Dakota, who is attending college here is the vice-president and wants programs which are both interesting and stimulating. I enjoy working with him.

"Our theme is *Present Day Trends in Education* and the chapter is making an effort to bring to the attention of the students in education, who are entering the field of teaching, some of these trends. We have sponsored two excellent films, *Near Home* and *Learning Through Cooperative Planning* and as soon as they are available we shall show others.

"One of our members spent last summer with relatives in Denmark and for the October meeting she told us many interesting facts about the schools of that country.

"The program for the November meeting consisted of an outstanding and informative talk by Mrs. Laura R. McCutchen, a modern language instructor from Belle Fourche, South Dakota. She spent the past summer on one of the deluxe tours of Europe. Mrs. McCutchen brought to chapter members and their guests much that was stimulating concerning trends in education in the countries she visited.

"The January meeting has been postponed twice because of the weather, however, we hope to hold a business meeting and initiation soon at which time four superior young people will become members."

From the beginning of this scholastic year, Epsilon Phi chapter, State Teachers

College, Jacksonville, Alabama, has been going about the business of enlarging and improving itself by tappings, initiations and the various other functions connected with them. The initiations have added to our membership: Betty Nelle Adams, Merlin Berg, Clavin L. Biddle, Marie Black, William H. Borden, Alline Burton, Hazel Daniel, Finus C. Gaston, Russell W. Gibson, Anne Jones Hare, James Harkins, William Tom Hood, Curtis H. Johnson, Annie Lee Jones, James E. Lecroy, Clyde P. McSpadden, A. Harlan Matthews, Betty Cox Mathews, Wesley Boyd Pruett, Estelle Sprayberry, Anna W. Saffels, Eu-nice Southern, and James Donald Vaughn. After the initiations, social hours with refreshments have helped the new and old members to become better acquainted.

The former active members of Kappa Delta Pi are: John Albea, Dorothy Blake, Cecil Bearden, Pearly Brown, Jackie Cobb, Marzell Culberson, Maggie Will Frazer, James Foshee, James Gamble, Nancy Harper, John Martin, Joan Martin, Charlie J. Payne, George Saffels, Charles Sprayberry, Joseph Steele. The officers of the chapter are: Dorothy Blake, president; James E. Lecroy, vice-president; Charlie Jean Payne, secretary; Maggie Will Frazer, treasurer; Marzell Culberson, recorder-historian.

The interest and energy of Kappa Delta Pi members at present are centered on the pages in the forthcoming issue of the college annual, *The Mimosa*. Also under consideration is the annual banquet which is to be an event of the Spring. That event is always the gathering place of Kappa Delta Pi alumni and present members. It is something to which all look forward with high anticipation. Among other things there is always a distinguished speaker from the field of education.

Dr. John W. Studebaker, former U. S. Commissioner of Education, made an off-the-record address at the regular meeting

of Kappa chapter, Teachers College, Columbia University, on December 9, 1948.

At the regular meeting of Kappa Chapter, on January 7, 1949, a panel of Teachers College students from other lands discussed the foreign situation, particularly with regard to education. These students were from India, China and British West Africa.

The most significant enterprise of Kappa chapter during the present term has been the publication of *Kappa Newsletter*, a copy of which is enclosed. So far as is known, this is the first publication of its kind for Kappa chapter (at least for some years now). This newsletter was sent to all active members of the chapter shortly before Christmas, and it has been extremely well received. It was produced by a publications committee and edited by the Historian-Reporter.

Gamma Lambda chapter, Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, Missouri, has a new sponsor, Dr. John D. Whitney, Dean of Men.

On December 19, those eligible for membership in Kappa Delta Pi were invited to the meeting. There was a most interesting speaker who talked of his native land of China and showed films.

The January meeting was on Sunday, the 23rd. It is planned to have initiation of new members.

Next month the chapter will be co-host with the chapter at Washington University at a tea to be given for the Association of School Administrators' convention in St. Louis. It is then planned to have Mr. Heckman, a prominent local musician, give an illustrated lecture on "The Organ."

Members of Delta Nu chapter honored four mid-year graduates at a farewell supper in the college domestic science rooms on Monday evening, Nov. 10. Mid-year graduates are Ruth Hauser, Jean Hibbard, John Norbet, and Kathryn Phelps.

Later in the evening three leaders of

the movement for a student council in the college spoke of the gains which have been made and the future objectives of the movement. A general discussion of the subject by all present rounded out the evening.

The secretary of Epsilon Gamma chapter, Florida Southern College, Lakeland, Florida, writes:

"Kappa Delta Pi is gaining great prestige on this campus. We are initiating nine new members on Saturday of this week.

"Together with the Future Teachers of America, we are co-sponsors of a new program which aims to interest high school seniors in the teaching profession, and in Florida Southern College. We are going to have as our guests for an entire weekend selected seniors from nearby high-schools.

"The Future Teachers of America is an outstanding organization in our college. Every person enrolled in the education department is required to become a member. For the second year now, we have organized a Little Theater group within our education department and we travel to nearby high schools presenting programs which have a three-fold purpose: to interest students in the teaching profession; to stimulate organization of junior FTA groups in high schools, and to entertain. We feel that we are benefiting greatly by this experience. Last year we traveled about 800 miles over the state of Florida to present this program."

The charter officers of Zeta Xi chapter, State Teachers College, Minot, N.D., are as follows (elected November 20, 1948): President, Clarence Kron, No. 6 Metal Barracks, MSTC, Minot, North Dakota; Vice-President, Betty Carlson, 1019 3rd St. NE, Minot, North Dakota; Secretary, Keith Stitzel, 10 College Barracks, Minot, North Dakota; Treasurer, Vernon Yeager, c/o Minot State Teachers College, Minot, North Dakota; Historian-Reporter, Clarice Leite, P. O. Box 182, Minot, North Dakota; Counselor, Agnes Beck-

strom, 405 9th Ave. NW, Minot, North Dakota.

At a meeting of Gamma Tau chapter, Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota, on January tenth, Robert Clayton gave a talk on China. He showed Chinese shoes, chopsticks, a menu and other objects which he had secured while he was stationed near Kunming during the last war. Dr. John Fuller gave the principal address of the evening on graduate study. Dr. Fuller stated that it was likely that a five-year course will soon be required for secondary teachers. He described the requirements for the Master's and Doctor's degree, the latter first given in 1861. He stated that there is a current attempt to establish a degree between the master's and doctor's, a specialist's degree requiring two years of graduate work.

Gamma Kappa chapter, the University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma, reports increased interest in the chapter on the part of the alumni. Many more students are now enrolled in education, and it is expected that the chapter will grow in size and influence. The chapter is planning a program for the Sequoyah group of Future Teachers of America, sponsored by the chapter last spring and now enrolling 81 members.

The first business meeting of the Epsilon Upsilon chapter at Potsdam State Teachers College, Potsdam, New York, was held September 16 at the home of Dr. and Mrs. Roger Dunn. At the next meeting four members presented the cases of the four leading candidates for the presidency of the United States after which there was a panel discussion. Refreshments were served.

The Newsletter of Kappa chapter, Teachers College, Columbia University, was inaugurated in December. It has much news. There is personal news, a record of "goings-on" at the college, and of course a chronicle of events in Kappa chapter.

Alpha Mu chapter, University of Wyo-

ming, Laramie, Wyoming, passed resolutions regarding their past counselor, Miss Flora H. Krueger, which are printed in another column, and presented \$20.00 to the Krueger Memorial which is being established to buy books and recordings for the University High School. Miss Krueger was a teacher of English.

Mrs. Barbara Osmun Provost, a member of Kappa Delta Pi in Bowling Green State University, Ohio, has recently been elected as the first co-ed president of the student senate of the university.

A report from Beta Pi chapter, New York University, gives this information:

"*Meetings*: The first meeting of the academic year, 1948-49, was held on October 2. Louis E. Raths, Ph.D., Professor of Education, School of Education, New York University, was the speaker. A copy of his address was forwarded to your office at an earlier date.

"Our speaker for the November meeting was Dr. Louise Rosenblatt, Specialist in English Literature. Dr. Rosenblatt, a member of the staff, School of Education, New York University, emphasized the value of using words realistically. Words are useful when used as a means of linking individual expression to broader experiences.

"The initiation and Banquet for new members was held on December 4. The address of the evening was given by Dr. Herbert J. Stack, Adjunct Professor of Education in the School of Education, New York University, also Director of the Center for Safety Education. He is co-author of 'Education for Safe Living.' Dr. Stack spoke on the topic, 'What Makes Drivers Act that Way?' He explained why drivers do foolish things which cause accidents. He designated education in correct attitudes as an effective factor in reducing accidents.

"The first meeting of the year, 1949, was held on January 8. The group was

addressed by George Alan Connor, Linguist, and Mrs. Doris Tappan Connor, both engaged in teaching Esperanto for the Esperanto Association of North America. Mr. Connor explained that Esperanto is a new concept of international language bridge to all people. In Esperanto, man can speak to other men anywhere on the face of the earth and be understood. Our speakers gave a demonstration lesson in Esperanto showing how easily it can be learned.

"Publications: The following are articles by members of the chapter, which have appeared in the various journals.

"Mrs. Frieda H. Dingee contributed several chapters to the revision of 'Directing Learning in the Language Arts,' by Dr. Mildred Dawson, published by Burgess Publishing Co., Minneapolis.

"Mr. Melvin E. Wagner has drawn up a workbook in Commercial Law, published by Prentice-Hall, Inc.

"Dr. Richard L. Laughlin's article titled 'A Philosophy of Comedy: The Essence of the Comic Spirit in Literature and Life,' appeared in the November, 1948 issue of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM.

"The following articles appeared under the authorship of Miss Irene May Meth:

"'The Study and Teaching of American History,' *Childhood Education*, March, 1948.

"'Education for Today's World,' *Rho Journal*, April, 1948.

"'Education for World Citizenship,' *School Activities*, September, 1948."

On Monday evening, November 15, 1948, an Initiation Dinner for new members of Delta Upsilon Chapter, Jersey City State Teachers College, Jersey City, N.J., was held. Mrs. Constance P. Nichols, secretary of the Jersey City Board of Education, herself a new member of the Kappa Delta Pi, addressed the gathering. The following is a condensation of her "talk."

"I just want to talk a little about us,

what the community expects of us as educators, and to try to convey to you in some small measure my sincere gratitude for the honor bestowed upon me and upon the Jersey City school system by inviting me to become a member of Kappa Delta Pi.

"I used an all-inclusive term in greeting you because it was only several days ago I learned that the membership in Kappa Delta Pi includes not only persons interested in general education but those persons interested in health education as well. This meeting, coming as it does, at the mid-point, between American Education Week and Nursing Progress Week is very fitting for us because we do want to get together and work together.

"... to my way of thinking, no profession has greater or more responsibilities than does teaching.

"Are we the people about whom Horace Mann was thinking when he wrote: 'All high hopes which I entertain of a more glorious future for the human race are built upon the elevation of the teacher's usefulness.' We are if we live well-adjusted lives, have a wholesome sense of humor, good mental and physical health, and are developing to capacity our intellectual abilities. We are not if we are standing by self-satisfied and smugly complacent in a rut that gets deeper all the time.

"People who 'think things' are vital in all walks of life and especially so in education. Teachers who have developed a schedule for living and studying give so much more in life to the people they serve. We must have an interest in getting the facts, patience in studying them, imagination in dealing with them, and a willingness to share them if we are to help children and adults to be good citizens, to develop their capacities, to enrich their minds with knowledge, and to imbue their hearts with love of truth and duty.

"As teachers we must never forget how

vital we are in the life of the community. We are entrusted with the most precious resources the community has, its girls and boys and its men and women.

"Ours is a noble cause and I hope, God willing, that we shall continue together for many years to uphold the cause of education for as Horace Mann so aptly said: 'If ever there was a cause, if ever there can be a cause, worthy of all the toil and sacrifice the human heart can endure, that cause is education.'

The historian-recorder of Zeta Zeta chapter, State Teachers College, New Paltz, New York, sends this news:

"Due to the number of members who have been doing their student teaching away from our campus, the New Paltz chapter has been slow in carrying out the schedule it had planned. However, we are now going ahead on our many projects.

"Our theme for the year is 'Our Part in Education.' Using films, speakers, and general discussions we will endeavor to expand this theme to show what we, as members of a professional organization, can do within the field to raise standards, extend and further opportunities for learning, and project it favorably to the public.

"On campus, to focus attention on our organization and to make pupils aware of what we are and what we do, Kappa Delta Pi will publish a list of the names of sophomores, juniors, and seniors who are in the upper quartile of their class.

"In addition, we now publish a Zeta Zeta column in our school paper, which tells all readers what we are doing and gives news of the members.

"Since our last report, we have taken in 17 new members. Our new senior members are: Robert Cooke, Ray Croswell, Ruth Ewing, Helen Lane, Betty Lyons, Jack Rossa, Fredrick Rothfuss, Anne Shaughnessy, Joan Taylor.

"Our new junior members are: Patrick

Buonfiglio, Eva Corrigan, George Corwin, Ann Davis, Arthur Fox, Leonard Meshover, Harold Schaefer, Henry Werle. These new student members, in addition to a number of new faculty members who have come to us from various Kappa Delta Pi chapters, have given us a large working membership through whom we expect to accomplish a lot during the remaining school year."

Zeta Alpha chapter of Kappa Delta Pi, State Teachers College, Paterson, New Jersey, reports:

"The topic for the November meeting of Zeta Alpha chapter was UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. This intergovernment organization has its permanent headquarters in Paris. Its purpose is to establish world peace. Members of Kappa Delta Pi reported on the background of 40 nations organization and members of the organization. The aim of UNESCO is to offer educational and economical aid to Europe by translating classics into different languages and by looking over text books for good public relations, to tie in with other organizations to do research work on health and mental hygiene, and to teach people to read. We decided to teach UNESCO at any grade level by helping pupils to realize its meaning and to correlate it with social studies by showing that all peoples contributed to our country's growth.

"Zeta Alpha chapter was extended a cordial invitation to join Gamma Epsilon chapter, Montclair State Teachers College. A program by a new musical group *Men in Music* was presented. The very enjoyable program consisted of varied instrumental and vocal renditions. The members of the two chapters were interested in fostering a closer relationship between nearby chapters of Kappa Delta Pi.

"Students and faculty at Paterson State

Teachers College were treated to a highly absorbing and educational assembly program when Dr. Ethel J. Alpenfels, noted anthropologist, author and lecturer, spoke in the college auditorium on the topic, 'From Adam to Atom.' The assembly program was sponsored by Zeta Alpha chapter of Kappa Delta Pi.

"In her lecture at Paterson State Teachers College, Dr. Alpenfels emphasized the fact that all races have come from a common ancestry, and that originally there was only one kind of people. As people moved to other parts of the earth and ate different foods, changes came about. Speaking of mutations, she pointed out that future generations of the people who survived the atom bomb at Hiroshima may show different characteristics than the Japanese of today.

"In closing, Dr. Alpenfels urged the need for teaching what science has proven to be true regarding the races of mankind. Also that we need a rebirth of moral and spiritual values and courage to present the facts.

"The topic for discussion for the January meeting was 'Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary Schools.' Various methods of presentation were reviewed, and suggestions for the improvement of instruction were made by members who are now teaching one or several phases of the social studies.

"Plans have been made for a panel discussion of *Civilization on Trial* by Arnold J. Toynbee, a volume which deals with many of the broad issues the world faces today."

Alpha Lambda chapter, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado held on January 21, a joint meeting with Alpha Sigma chapter of Phi Delta Kappa. At this meeting "A Round Table on Education in Some Foreign Countries," was presented by Mr. and Mrs. Daniel Bernard, France;

Mr. and Mrs. Seng Ong Ho, Malaya; Miss Cecile Mizrahi, Greece; Mr. Akdar Zad, Iran.

These speakers are students at the University of Denver and gave an up-to-date picture of education in the countries they represent. Mr. and Mrs. Bernard and Miss Mizrahi explained education in their respective countries from the students' viewpoint. Mr. and Mrs. Seng Ong Ho described some of their teaching experiences in Malaya. Mr. Zad presented an over-all picture of education in Iran.

The chairman at this joint meeting was Dr. Alfred C. Nelson, Chancellor of the University of Denver.

The first meeting of Alpha Sigma chapter, San Diego State College, San Diego, California, took place at the home of Dr. and Mrs. E. C. Deputy. A bright cheerful fire in the fire place set the tempo for the evening as San Diego was experiencing the coldest weather since 1900.

A very impressive initiation ceremony constituted the initial activity of the evening and the following members were extended the friendly hand of fellowship to our chapter: Mary Ashley, Odell Barnson, Mildred Berriman, Joseph Byrnes, Edward Creekmur, June Chavez, Robert Gray, Richard Hartman, Betty Ann Jones, Marie McKinney, Herbert Nelson, Dora Olivera, Bruce Porteous, Carol Peterson, Audrey Petz, Gene Schniepp, Charles Wood.

The Epsilon Tau chapter, State Teachers College, Geneseo, New York, initiated 18 new members on November 3, 1948. The initiates were: Beverly Balch, Jane E. Bartz, Jeanne M. Briggs, Mary Louise Brown, Henry Hunter Fraser, Nancy Lou Griffiths, Kathryn A. Herrington, Jeanne F. Higbie, Elizabeth A. Horek, Dorothy A. Joseph, Eleanor La Vere, Jean A. Mason, William A. McCauley, Dorothy E. Meyer, Ann R. Monroe, Barbara Anne Monroe, Lois J. Robbins, Anne E.

Sprague, Helen E. Stewart.

Our program for this year is centered around "Customs and Folkways of Different Countries." At our December meeting the theme was "Christmas in Other Countries." As it was a dinner meeting we came dressed in costumes of different countries and told briefly of some interesting Christmas custom of the country we represented. At our January meeting we heard an excellent talk on "Folklore and Literature in Germany" given by Dr. Peter Suesskand who is here to study American methods in education. We had an equally inspiring

talk in February by Otto Hoogcamp, our Dutch student, who talked about folklore in Holland.

The outstanding contributions that Beta Rho, State Teachers College, Mansfield, Pennsylvania, is making for the other students is that of entertaining the Dean's list students. Beta Rho is advancing an educational spirit through the excellent speaker who will entertain these students.

At our initiation each initiate demonstrated his talent by singing, speaking, etc. This produced a great deal of interest since there was student participation.

A Few Beatitudes

Blessed is the teacher who by August is lonesome for boys and girls and who yearneth for the hum and activity of a busy classroom.

Blessed is the teacher who looketh forward to September as a return to a satisfying experience and not merely as a return to the payroll.

Blessed is the teacher who knoweth how boys and girls feel inside, and who through that knowledge playeth upon their minds and hearts as a skilled violinist upon his Cremona.

Blessed is the teacher who hath a loyal heart and who worketh for the success of superintendent, principal, and fellow teachers as for herself.

Blessed is the teacher who knoweth how to laugh in her work and whose children are not afraid to burst forth in hearty merriment if she getteth ink on her nose.

Blessed is the teacher whose youngsters tag her about, and whose parents love to talk to her about their children.

Blessed is the teacher who taketh some of her time, energy, and money to help improve her profession, for the happiness of tomorrow's teachers dependeth on the vision and action of those of today.

Blessed is the teacher who hath good taste and common sense, for verily the profession oft is judged by the eccentricities of a few.

Blessed is the teacher who knoweth she is a good teacher, who practiceth her art on clean and unwashed alike and who, when her day's work is done, locketh it in the schoolroom and taketh time for fun. Verily she will have her reward in the love of her children, the respect of her fellow workers, and the appreciation of her community.

—*Kansas Teacher*

Chapter Programs

OMEGA CHAPTER

Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

Theme: "Knowing Each Other the World Around."

November 9—Do You Know Your Neighbor?—7:15 P.M. Guest Speakers—Foreign Students on Our Campus. Chairman, Gay Baker.

November 18—Business Meeting—4:00 P.M.

December 14—Celebrating the Holiday Season the World Around—7:15 P.M. Initiation of New Members and Christmas Party. Chairman, Katherine Cooperider, Faculty Club.

January 11—Around the World in Recreation—8:15 P.M. Chairman, Charlotte La Tourrette, Women's Gym.

February 15—UNESCO—Its Contribution to World Education—7:15 P.M. Speaker—Dr. F. L. Shoemaker, Chairman, Richard C. Sovish.

March 8 — Panel Discussion on UNESCO—7:15 P.M. Members of Kappa Delta Pi. Chairman, Charles Lewis.

March 17—Business Meeting—4:00 P.M.

April 5—Initiation and Banquet—6:00 P.M. Christian Church.

May 1—Reception for Honor Students.

May 10—Songs and Music of Many Countries. Installation of Officers. Chairman, Doris Phillips.

ALPHA IOTA CHAPTER

*North Texas State Teachers College,
Denton, Texas*

January 13—Dr. S. B. McAlister, Chairman, Division of Social Sciences, N.T.S.T.C.

"What the Teacher May Expect from

the Legislature"—7:00 P.M.—Library Auditorium. Meeting Open to the Public.

February 17—Panel Program Committee, 7:00 P.M.—Library Auditorium.

March 17—Dr. Imogene Bentley, Dean of Women, N.T.S.T.C. Book Review—7:00 P.M.—Library Auditorium. Meeting Open to the Public.

April 14—Election of Officers for 1949-50. 7:00 P.M.—Library Auditorium.

May 15—Annual Social and Installation of Officers for 1949-50. Place and time to be announced.

BETA THETA CHAPTER

*Oshkosh State Teachers College,
Oshkosh, Wisconsin*

September 29—Business meeting.

October 20—Business meeting.

October 23—The annual Homecoming Breakfast for the Alumni.

November 17—A supper meeting—with satirical educational program followed by a discussion of new books.

January 19—Initiation dinner for first semester initiates.

February 16—Supper meeting with program following.

March 16—Supper meeting with program following.

April 20—Initiation dinner for the second semester initiates. Dinner and after dinner speaker.

May 18—Annual spring picnic.

BETA RHO CHAPTER

*State Teachers College, Mansfield,
Pennsylvania*

September—Business meeting.

October—Business meeting—Short program—Voting on initiates.

November—Initiation of new members with special themes, songs of their composition.

December—Fifteen initiates report on members of Laureate chapter. Reading—*The Little Serving Maid* and musical selections.

January—Reading of a play by John Parsons, 1948 initiate.

February—Speaker: Exchange teacher from France—(a). The Dean's list of honor students will be guests of Beta Rho.

March—Speaker: Mr. Howells, Superintendent of Schools of Wayne County, Pennsylvania, just returned from a tour in Europe.

April—Annual Banquet.

GAMMA NU CHAPTER

Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana

In February, 1949, Gamma Nu chapter will broadcast over radio station WFBM (1260), Indianapolis, Indiana, a fifteen-minute radio program. It will be in the form of a panel discussion; the theme will be "Teacher recruitment for teacher training institutions."

On December 13, 1948, the chapter held an initiation ceremony for twenty-one new members. Following the banquet, Dr. E. Burdette Backus, minister of All Souls Unitarian Church, Indianapolis, Indiana, delivered an address; his subject was "Who is Educated?"

In May, 1949, the chapter will sponsor a book review to which the public will be invited to attend. A faculty member of the University English Department will give the book review.

In April, 1949, the chapter will sponsor a tea for high school seniors for the purpose of acquainting them with the program of a typical teacher training institution. The purpose is to encourage high school graduates to pursue a career in teaching.

DELTA ETA CHAPTER

*Northwestern State College,
Alva, Oklahoma*

September 23, 1948—8:00 P.M.—Committee: Luella Harzman, 917 Flynn, Doris Downs, Pearl Hanson, Elsie Tate.—Business Meeting. Violin Solo: James Brakebill.

October 15, 1948—6:00 P.M.—Pangburn's Cafe. Committee: Edythe Kepford, Orpha Herrick, Aurice Huguley, Maurice Shields, Faye Summers.—Speaker: Dr. David L. MacFarlane, President, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia.

November 11, 1948—8:00 P.M.—Committee: C. E. Campbell, 309 Church, Earl L. Geis, Dan Shorter, Miss Shockley.—American Culture—Music. Speaker: Ruth Genuit. Election of New Members.

December 9, 1948—8:00 P.M.—Committee: (Home Economics Department), Kathrine Mires, Anna B. Fisher, Evelyn Hoch, Annette Parker.—American Christmas Customs—Initiation of New Members.

January 13, 1949—8:00 P.M.—Committee: Ruth Genuit, 920 Fifth, Wilma Ernst, Opal Nighswonger.—American Culture—Art. Speaker: Evelyn Hoch.

February 10, 1949—8:00 P.M.—Committee: Margery Clyne, 629 Center, Patsy Peters Faulkner, Bess Chappell.—American Culture—Literature. Speaker: Bennie Henry. Music: Mrs. Bob Kirkbride. Election of New Members.

March 10, 1949—8:00 P.M.—Committee: Sabin C. Percefull, Campus, Victor Wolmoth, Edna Donley, Mattie Lyday.—American Culture—Dance. Speaker: Inez Patterson, Piano Solo: Glenn Holden. Election of Officers.

April 29, 1949—7:00 P.M.—Convocation Banquet. Committee: Wenona Easterly, Marjorie Geist, Carol Prentice, Neva Schwerdfeger, Hulda Groesbeck.

DELTA PSI CHAPTER

*Shepherd College, Shepherdstown,
West Virginia*

All the events listed below, except that of March 11, 1949, will take place in the Recreation Room of the Science Building at 7:30 P.M.

Friday, November 12, 1948—Business Meeting.

Friday, December 3, 1948—Reception for all education students. Purpose: To stimulate closer fellowship and co-operation amongst education students, to inspire greater academic effort, to explain the nature of the society, and to create a sincere desire to join our organization.

Monday, January 17, 1949—Open Meeting: Speaker—Mr. T. A. Lowery, Superintendent of Jefferson County Schools. Topic—*The Continuous Twelve-year Program*.

Friday, February 11, 1949—Business meeting and election of new members.

Friday, March 11, 1949—Initiation ceremony followed by banquet: Banquet speaker—Dr. Lowell Rogatz, Professor of History at The George Washington University. Topic—*Europe in the Post-War World*. (The time and place will be announced at a future date.)

Friday, April 8, 1949—Open meeting: Speaker—Grace L. Alder, Supervisor of Elementary Schools in Maryland.

Friday, May 13, 1949—Business meeting and election of officers.

EPSILON NU CHAPTER

*Willimantic State Teachers College,
Willimantic, Connecticut*

November 15, 1948—6:30 P.M.—Burr Hall—Dinner, Initiation. Speaker: Dr. Thut, Professor of Education, University of Connecticut. "Modern Educational Trends."

December 9, 1948—8:00 P.M.—Music Room. Discussion—What is Kappa Delta Pi and What have other chapters done? —Music.

January 5, 1949—8:00 P.M.—Little Theatre. Speaker Dr. Phifer, Supervising Teacher in Training School, 5th grade—Willimantic State Teachers College "Education in Haiti." Each member bring one guest.

February, 1949—Plan for card party.

March 7, 1949—8:00 P.M.—W.S.S. Aud. Card party and food sale.

April 4, 1949—8:00 P.M.—W.S.T.C. Aud. Outstanding speaker: to be announced. Open to the public.

May 7, 1949—Alumni day. Luncheon meeting. Election of officers. Surprise!

EPSILON SIGMA CHAPTER

*State Teachers College, Oneonta,
New York*

The Epsilon Sigma chapter at State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York is making plans for two outstanding activities for this year. The first includes the development of an original sound film to be used for recruitment purposes. Epsilon Sigma chapter will sponsor the project with the chapter members acting in the capacity of committee heads for the organization of the film. The entire student body will be given an opportunity to aid in the planning. Chapter members recently reviewed several recruitment films made at other Teachers Colleges. Faculty and student response to this plan have been very enthusiastic and we're hoping to produce an A-1 film that will put Oneonta on the map.

Our other activity to be held later in the year will be a Senior Day. A day will be especially set aside for all seniors to visit the grade which they plan to teach next year and to spend several hours interviewing teachers of these grades for the purpose

of brushing up on specific problems of that grade. Also planned for this day will be a speaker on some pertinent educational question raised by the graduating seniors. Epsilon Sigma will plan and make all arrangements for this day.

EPSILON UPSILON CHAPTER

*Potsdam State Teachers College,
Potsdam, New York*

1. Assembly program October 28.
2. Joint meeting with Internation Relations Club.
3. Debate with Clarkson College of Technology Honor Society (Tau Beta Pi).
4. Kappa Delta Pi Day on Campus.
 - a. Awards given to underclassmen for outstanding achievement in education.
5. Discussion of four leading Presidential Candidates in 1948 election.
6. Christmas buffet supper and Carol sing with whole school December 16.
7. Class Day—Kappa Delta Pi seniors transfer "Daisy Chain" to Kappa Delta Pi juniors.
8. Radio Program—given over Campus Station WNTC. Assembly Program—October 16—Mr. Armagost member of faculty in History Department spoke on "Soviet Education."

Sixteen juniors were pledged for Kappa Delta Pi on October 21—Afterwards Dr. West, member of faculty gave a slide-lecture on his many trips West during the past summers.

Certain events and ideas are being currently discussed to raise money for the chapter and to bring Kappa Delta Pi before the students.

The meaning, purpose, and requirements for membership of Kappa Delta Pi were presented to the freshmen of '52 by a senior member, Jeanne Johnston.

JACKSONVILLE ALUMNI CHAPTER

Jacksonville, Florida

Wednesday, December 8, 1948—Entertainment—Christmas selections by members of the Glee Club, Jacksonville Junior College, Edward Bryan, Director of Music, Jacksonville Junior College.—Speaker—Lee Adams, local artist, Mandarin, Florida.—Time and Place—Woman's Club, Gable Room.—8 o'clock. Social Committee, Mrs. T. F. Hussey, Chairman; Misses Coody, Veasey, Scalise; Mesdames Hodge, E. O. Williams, McCuller, Godfrey, F. S. Hudnall, Stickley, Busselle; Messrs. F. S. Hudnall, W. C. Charles; Dr. Garth Akridge.

Saturday, February 5, 1949—Entertainment—Skit. Speaker—Margaret Munnerlyn World-Wide Traveler—Time and Place—Roosevelt Hotel, Floridan Room—12:30 o'clock. Social Committee, Mrs. A. G. Burroughs, Chairman; Misses Mount, Bogue, Glidewell, Swords; Mesdames Christopher, Etheredge, Fisackerly, Gerrard, Robey, J. G. Wells.

Wednesday, March 30, 1949—Entertainment—Captain Ray, Bolles Military Academy, Concert Pianist. Speaker—To be announced.—Time and Place—Friday Musicale, 8 o'clock. Social Committee, Mrs. Viola Wilson, Chairman; Misses Muriel, Friedman, Burnett, Welch, de-Keni, Nellie Cooke, Mary Cooke, Reed, Larsen, Hughes, Hoey, McLean; Mesdames Dobarganes, McGill, Neighbors, Pedroni, Henderson, Money, Nooney, Norris, Rozar, Harwell, Saig, Franz, Mr. L. C. Harwell.

Tuesday, May 17, 1949—Entertainment—Dr. Eubanks, Speech Department, University of Florida, Master of Ceremonies.—Initiation and Installation of new members. Time and Place—To be announced.—Social Committee, Mrs. Adelaide Commander, Chairman.

Chapter Resolutions

RESOLUTION ON THE DEATH OF COUNSELOR FLORA H. KRUEGER, UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING

THE death of Miss Flora H. Krueger is a great loss to Alpha Mu chapter of Kappa Delta Pi. She was a charter member and had served as president and counselor. Her faithful attendance at meetings is evidence that she recognized the value and importance of this organization as a means for advancing the cause of education and for instilling high standards and ideals in its members. Those who had the opportunity of being present at a Kappa Delta Pi initiation in which Miss Krueger participated will always remember the dignity, sincerity, and impressiveness which she gave to the ceremony.

The Kappa Delta Pi ideals, Science, Humanity, Service, and Toil, were exemplified in her life. Her search for truth; her firm belief that goodness and right would conquer evil; her willingness to serve in any capacity; her acceptance of the daily toil required of every conscientious teacher, was an inspiration to all those who worked with her. Not content with the superficial, she herself was a challenge to students. A champion of all good causes both on the campus and in the community, she was a loyal, valued member of the University faculty.

Of Miss Krueger, it can truly be said that she met the challenge expressed in the closing words of the initiation service of Kappa Delta Pi—"so to live that what we are may guide young and old to know the truth and love the right—to this intent we give firm faith and in this purpose we invest our lives."

—Resolutions of Alpha Mu chapter

RESOLUTION ON RETIREMENT OF COUNSELOR JOHN W. CHARLES, IOWA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

The following resolution was adopted by Psi chapter:

Resolved, That in behalf of the entire membership of Psi chapter, Kappa Delta Pi, the following resolutions be adopted in tribute to our respected counselor, Dr. John W. Charles.

As a servant of the spirit of education and leader in advancing the true meaning of that spirit, Dr. Charles took the post of counselor to Psi chapter, Kappa Delta Pi upon the death of Dr. E. C. Finkenbinder in September, 1937 and has capably carried out his duties in a manner to bring great honor to himself and credit to this educational society.

Since his election as Counselor of Psi chapter on September 30, 1937, he has played an important part in its life and growth. He has given most generously of his time and advice. Under his guidance, the society has sponsored various projects of value to its members—lectures, scholarships, social events.

By his sterling character and his distinguished contribution to education, Dr. Charles has reflected high honor on the local chapter of Kappa Delta Pi.

But it resolved, therefore, That we express our appreciation for his leadership, and our gratitude for his interest and labor in behalf of this society.

Resolved, That we express our regret in the resignation of Dr. Charles from active membership in Psi chapter and his termination of service on the faculty of Iowa State Teachers College and offer him our heartfelt best wishes and our fervent hope for his future success and happiness.

A Talk to Teachers*

SAMUEL MIDDLEBROOK

In accepting the kind invitation to talk before actual and prospective young teachers honored by election to your society, I bore in mind that your president wants you to hear representatives from the various departments of the City College.

What, as a member of the English department, could I present of value to you?

I could not give you a digest of some part of the vast professional literature on teaching that—on the surface—has changed this calling in the past two generations. I have not studied the material enough. Besides, such analyses are the business of the department of education.

After some thought, I found it best, in the brief time I had for preparing these pages, to run over a very few accounts of teachers given by some English and American writers of the past. The remarks of these writers would, I hoped, be persuasively concrete, even if not "professional." For there is truth in William James's aphorism that "the natural enemy of any subject is the professor thereof." If you want all the facts, do not pass up what the gifted amateur has to say.

In other words, I can construct for you now the briefest possible anthology of remarks on teachers and teaching by writers, rather than by professors of education or English. You can draw your own conclusions about their value.

And if I start with a series of hostile notes on our mutual vocation, it is for this reason: when you know the worst that has been said of the work you are engaged in, or of the people who do it, you have solid ground under your feet. You can be hurt but hardly surprised by the latest blast

against teachers by a present-day columnist. There is comfort in thinking that many heartfelt gripes have been uttered before, and teachers have survived. Indeed we teachers have benefited by the home truths of our friends in disguise, the creative writers. Their stinging truths are an antiseptic to cure us of folly.

(In passing, let me stay that I speculate on the kinds of instructors our geniuses of letters have had. Some very good ones, no doubt; or their genius might have been stillborn. But also some bad ones, who have since become immortal.)

To the portraits of these immortally bad teachers let us turn. In my own private books, the pair in Henry Fielding's *Tom Jones* hold a place of peculiar dishonor. I refer, of course, to Thwackum and Square, one a clergyman and the other a philosopher, whom the rich Mr. Allworthy had chosen because he did not wish to send his two wards, Tom Jones and Master Blifil, to a public school.

Thwackum and Square were the tutors that Master Blifil believed and obeyed until they shaped him into an odious hypocrite. They were the pair that Tom Jones fought against and outwitted until—in Fielding's eyes and those of the beautiful Sophia of the story—he became a complete man and a hero.

Fielding detested these two pedants of his imagination. He tells us why. He meant no disservice to religion and philosophy (*i.e.* education) by his portraits: "I would rather have buried the sentiments of these two persons in eternal oblivion than have done any injury to either of these glorious causes."

"On the contrary," he adds, "it is with a view to their service that I have taken

* Address before Gamma Iota Chapter, College of the City of New York.

upon me to record the lives and actions of two of their false and pretended champions."

I shall not minutely transcribe the story of these rogues, but only pause to summarize their characters in turn.

Thwackum is the decayed Calvinist who has embraced the dogmas of that iron theologian with no saving sense of humility. A quoter of opprobrious texts, he has professionally low opinions of the human race—and especially of boys. He is sour, suspicious, eager to believe the worst. He is both bully and tyrant. In his day (and I find this fact significant) he was a "scholar." "This Thwackum was fellow of a college, where he almost entirely resided; and had a great reputation for learning, religion, and sobriety of manners."

Enough of a dissembler to hide his savagery from his employer, he vents his wrath on Tom Jones and toadies to Master Blifil. For Tom is supposed to be an illegitimate waif, ready to be pushed off his plank of temporary good fortune.

Thwackum beats Tom black and blue, but he never subdues his spirit. In the person of this pedant, Tom finds his enemy; by instinct he acts contrary to the man's every precept. And so he saves himself from being made a rascal.

Now Thwackum's rival is supposedly of contrary principles. He is an eighteenth century sentimentalist who prates of natural "virtue" and its beauties. "Square held human nature to be the perfection of all virtue, and that vice was a deviation from our nature in the same manner that a deformity of the body is."

At first glance this Deist and word-monger seems to be a softer person than his rival pedagogue. Yet we soon see that he differs from Thwackum only as Tweedledee differed from Tweedledum. Their quarrels are in truth only about a rattle.

If Square does not beat Tom, he gladly stands by to see Thwackum do the job. He poisons Allworthy's mind against the boy by plausible lies, more effective than Thwackum's noisy abuse. He unites with Thwackum in finding the young hypocrite Blifil a tribute to their joint efforts. And his credit is forever blasted in one of the great comic scenes of English literature, which might be called "Up in Molly's Room." Caught in a hopelessly compromising situation with Molly Seagrim—and Fielding had seen many Molls as a police-court judge—poor Square has to listen to Tom's good-humored quotations from his previous homilies on the virtue of man.

What is the trouble with these teachers, in Fielding's eyes? Basically, it seems to be one-sidedness. Or, as Fielding puts it: "Now the reader will be pleased to consider that, as neither of these men were fools, they could not be supposed to have holden none but wrong principles, and to have uttered none but absurdities; what injustice, therefore, must I have done had I selected only what was bad!"

Thwackum libelled humanity, and Square tried to sound too good to live. The one could not push his pupils down to the savagery of his theories; the other could not raise himself to the heights of his absurd perfectionism. Have you not seen teachers of either sort even in these days when beating pupils is frowned on?

Fielding says that a middle course between the two would have been the proper one: be realistic and above all kind! But the practice of Mr. Allworthy of hiring both teachers—in the hope that two wrong men might between them do right—did not work out. I think the reason was that neither of them was honest in his job. Neither had for his pupils that high form of affection which includes respect. Each used his pupils only to support his own theories. Again to quote Fielding: "in the

composition of their several systems (they) utterly discarded all natural goodness of heart."

This "natural goodness of heart" was Fielding's own best gift to his friends in actual life and to his readers for all time. Because he had so much of it because in the last analysis he loved all human beings, he was a great teacher, though he never stood before a class. Such is the verdict of Thackeray in his book on *The English Humorists*:

"What multitudes of truths has that man left behind him! What scholars he has formed and accustomed to the exercise of thoughtful humor and the manly play of wit! . . . It is wonderful to think of the pains and misery which the man suffered; the pressure of want, illness, remorse which he endured; and that the writer was neither malignant nor melancholy, his view of the truth never warped, and his generous human kindness never surrendered."

Could any professional teacher ask for a nobler epitaph?

But let us pursue the misfits of teaching one step further and turn to that Diogenes of the Victorians, Samuel Butler. You know him as the author of a book, quarried out of his own resentments and his overflowing notebooks, that the world refuses to let die. It is *The Way of All Flesh*.

Here we find Dr. Skinner of Roughborough, a famous headmaster taken from life—perhaps from several lives. (For if Butler began his sketch as a model of his own actual teacher, Dr. Kennedy of Shrewsbury, there are obvious parallels to the noted Arnold of Rugby.)

Whether the "real" Thomas Arnold of Rugby was like the man portrayed by his son Matthew Arnold, in *Rugby Chapel*, or the one in Hughes's *Toni Brown's School Days*, or still another Thomas Arnold as seen by Lytton Strachey in

Eminent Victorians is beside the point. Each differing portrait of the same person is consistent with itself; each artist was painting himself as much as the supposed sitter. To two of the writers Arnold was a great teacher; to Strachey he was a stuffed shirt.

Butler's picture of a teacher is impressive. It is lovingly detailed with items stretching over many years. Dr. Skinner of Roughborough has not the raw brutality of Thwackum; his weapons are more up-to-date: he does not beat his pupils—he only browbeats them. "He was a passionate, half-turkey-cock, half-gander of a man whose sallow, bilious face and hobble-gobble voice could scare the timid."

Like Thwackum too, Skinner had been a noted scholar, a "genius." "Had he not taken I don't know how many University Scholarships in his freshman's year? Had he not been afterward Senior Wrangler, First Chancellor's Medallist and I don't know how many more things besides? And then, he was such a wonderful speaker; at the Union Debating Club he had been without a rival, and had, of course, been president; his moral character—a point on which so many geniuses were weak—was absolutely irreproachable; foremost of all, however, among his many qualities . . . was what biographers have called 'the simple-minded and childlike earnestness of his character,' an earnestness which might be perceived by the solemnity with which he spoke about trifles."

Seeing this dreadful man for the first time, Ernest Pontifex (*alias* Samuel Butler) knows he has entered a spiritual prison. When he goes to Cambridge University it is but to another prison with roomier cells; not until he is committed to an actual jail in London can he renounce Skinner and all his works.

How much this story reflects Butler's considered opinion on the harm that teach-

ers can do is shown in this heart-felt paragraph:

"O schoolmasters—if any of you read this book—bear in mind when any particularly timid, snivelling urchin is brought by his papa into your study, and you treat him with the contempt he deserves, and afterwards make his life a burden for years—bear in mind that it is exactly in the disguise of such a boy that your future chronicler will appear. Never see a wretched little heavy-eyed mite sitting on the edge of a chair against your study wall without saying to yourselves, 'Perhaps this boy is he who, if I am not careful, will one day tell the world what manner of man I was.' If even two or three schoolmasters learn this lesson and remember it, the preceding chapters will not have been written in vain."

Surely by this time—though you may enjoy these satirical strokes by the old masters—you may also protest: "But all this is so obvious! These men are *gross* sinners against children and their own calling. The authors of these libels wrote for our grandfathers, our remote ancestors. We teachers have long since learned to be imaginatively kind!"

I wish I could share such optimism. Pride, envy, anger, the lust for domination—sins that bear heaviest on the young—have not notably vanished. When the chroniclers of our own time are at last written, the spirits of Fielding and Samuel Butler may have reason to smile. The reborn Dr. Skinners, the Thwackums and Squares of bygone generations may be upon those pages.

And if the writings of our literary men show that these caricatures of teachers still abound, I shall trust their findings—rather than those of the educational philosophers and theorists. A wise remark of James Harvey Robinson, dealing with human na-

ture in general, may be applied here to education:

"The truest and most profound observations on intelligence (substitute *teaching* for *intelligence*) have in the past been made by poets and, in recent times, by story-writers. They have been keen observers and recorders. . . . Most philosophers, on the other hand, have exhibited a grotesque ignorance of man's life and have built up systems that are elaborate and imposing, but quite unrelated to human affairs."

In the above paragraph lies the clue to my brief for the department of English on this occasion. Its representatives are concerned with *literature*: briefly defined as the truest record of the best moments of the human race.

Literature can show us what we would like to be always—if we only could. Classically, it has always preferred to be simple and concrete, to move the imagination while it excites the brain. It has taught by winged precept growing out of living example. It has showed character in action and has persuaded its readers to generous imitation. Now since the great difficulty in all education is to get experience out of ideas, as Santayana put it, my theme here is that literature, and a love of it, should be the safest guide to any teacher.

So, at any rate, it proved in the writings of the man with whom I close these observations. He is a teacher whom I often think of as a helpful example to any other member of his calling. He did not paint characters like the novelists whom I have just cited; he preferred to generalize about methods.

His name was George Herbert Palmer. He lived in and around Harvard University for 91 years. He wrote books on his namesake, George Herbert, the English mystic poet; on his wife, who at 27 became president of Wellesley; on William Words-

worth, whom he regarded as a saint. Indeed, the essayist John Chapman once suggested that Palmer was carried off prematurely at 92 by the disclosure of Wordsworth's affair with Annette Vallon, which resulted in an illegitimate baby. He was a good writer; he sold more copies of his translation of the *Odyssey* than did Alexander Pope.

Palmer's genius was for boiling things down to memorable essentials. Thus he once wrote an essay, "Self Cultivation in English," that said everything necessary to the job of learning to write. He did the same for teaching in a similar essay, "The Ideal Teacher." I should like to see "The Ideal Teacher" as an appendix to every book on education.

Palmer found that all that could be taught of the art of teaching in just four qualities. "First," he said, "a teacher must have an aptitude for vicariousness; and second, an already accumulated wealth; and third, an ability to invigorate life through knowledge; and fourth, a readiness to be forgotten."

If these qualities sound forbidding, it is because of the author's compressed language. The "aptitude for vicariousness" means the ability to put yourself in someone else's place. If a teacher has not this power, by automatic habit from long practice, he fails.

The second one, "an already accumulated wealth," does not mean that the man or woman is primarily a "scholar," as we understand that term. "While no doubt it is well," he says, "for a teacher to be a fair scholar—I have known several such—that is not the main thing. What constitutes the teacher is the passion to make scholars; and again and again it happens that the great scholar has no such passion whatever." The great scholar is often a spiritual miser; the great teacher is the spendthrift of himself.

By the third quality Palmer meant the development of personal vigor, in order "to

see that the onslaught of knowledge does not enfeeble" either him or his students. For if a teacher is unimaginative, pedantic, dull, he will make his pupils no less so. Sometimes this personal vigor comes from writing, sometimes from a hobby. Sometimes,—though Palmer omits mentioning this method—it comes from marriage and a family, which Bacon called a discipline in humanity. The traditional "learned article" that so many of us teachers turn out to convince others of our vigor has a low place in his analysis. "Many of my most productive colleagues have printed little or nothing, though they have left a deep mark on the life and science of our time."

And the last quality, which crowns the rest, is a readiness to be forgotten. As teachers we really do not know what we do best for our students nor when we do it. "We cannot tell what are our good deeds, and we shall only plague ourselves and hinder our classes if we try to find out." So why should we individually expect a gratitude that we may not have earned? Let us rather be glad that, in the large, ours is the happily remembered profession. "Though our pupils cannot follow our efforts in their behalf, and indeed ought not—yet they perceive that in the years of their happy expansion we were their guides. To us, therefore, their blind affections cling as to few besides their parents. It is better to be loved than understood."

To conclude: it is the supreme luck of the teachers of English that in the books they read and love they can find so many illustrations of how *not* to teach, balanced by an equal number of sketches of the job well done. (I leave to you the pleasant task of finding these sketches of good teachers at work; I think they will show Palmer's precepts in action.) If we teachers of literature fail completely—and of course none of us can succeed as we would like—we have ourselves to blame.

Prize Essays in Editorial Contest

Delta Epsilon Chapter

The Teacher Has a Duty*

NORMA WRIGHT

SINCE wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed."

We, as future teachers, must realize the importance of these opening words of the preamble of the UNESCO constitution. On our shoulders will soon be thrown the responsibility of keeping a world free from war and hatred. We must realize our obligations as teachers and be willing to help bridge the gap between this fast-moving world and an education system which is moving too slowly to keep up. We must understand that teaching is more than just a vocation; it is more than just a job to which we give eight hours of work a day; it is rather a task to which we must dedicate our lives if we are to fulfill our manifold opportunities and desires.

In our hands will lie the ability to shape the future citizens of America—be they farmers or statesmen. We will be given the opportunity to mold the minds of young children towards brotherhood or

towards hatred and racial prejudice. We must learn now how to encourage the former if we are to avoid another world war. This teaching of young children will indeed be our major job, but it will not be our only one.

We must also further the idea of peace among the adults of our community. Because we will have an education beyond that of the average citizen, we should use this training to help influence public opinion. Since these adults are the present governing power, they must be educated to become more intelligent citizens if present peace is to be maintained. Then, too, as teachers we must aid our profession as a whole by understanding better the objectives of UNESCO, helping to raise funds for this organization, and making its activities better known to the general public.

No, maybe we as teachers will not be able to do this great job of promoting peace alone; but, if education is to be effective at all in preventing another war, it must be accomplished by the teachers of this generation in America, where education is most free and most influential in determining the policy of the public.

* First prize essay on education in an education week contest, sponsored by Delta Epsilon Chapter, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois.

Securing the Peace Through Education*

JUNE BRAHM

JAMES F. BYRNES recently stated the principal problem of today in a brief but very thought-provoking passage, "There was never a time, even in the

midst of war, when it was so necessary to replace prejudice with truth, distortion with balance, and suspicion with understanding."

Now the question can be asked, "What

* Second prize essay.

is being done to achieve the end Mr. Byrnes has spoken of?" The answer to this lies in the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. This important body has recognized that, "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed."

The purpose of this organization is to promote mutual understanding and education in the citizenship of the whole world, a brotherhood of all men based on respect for law and human rights. To accomplish this, UNESCO will encourage the use of all possible means of international communication, such as the press, radio, and films to aid the peoples of the world to learn more about each other and therefore establish a common ground of understanding. It will aid education by advocating equality of education and by its assistance to member states in developing their educational facilities. It has begun even now to encourage intellectual cooperation in the exchange of students and experts from one member state to another, and even more important it is doing much to help make the publications of each country accessible to all.

UNESCO is a vital organ of the United Nations in that it seeks no power to regulate or control; its purpose is to persuade, stimulate, advise and recommend. To be effective, however, it must have cooperation—the cooperation of each country. That is a broad statement, however; so let us limit it by making it a personal challenge.

As college men and women and potential teachers, we will have the opportunity to put the purpose of this peace-making organization into effect. We will be working closely with people, young and old, and in such a position we can encourage international understanding and cooperation. Understanding goes both ways, and we can increase it in both directions by adding to our knowledge of other countries and peoples, and by helping their citizens to know us better. Above all we must keep an open mind, one that is willing to look at both sides of every story. The cloud of suspicion and prejudice has darkened the world long enough. Let us get behind the UNESCO movement and push it forward to that peaceful tomorrow.

He that will write well in any tongue must follow this counsel of Aristotle, to speak as the common people do, to think as wise men do; and so should every man understand him, and the judgment of wise men follow him.—ROGER ASCHAM

As H. G. Wells Viewed Education*

EDDY S. KALIN, Director
Isadore Newman School, New Orleans

M^{R.} TOASTMASTER, members and initiates of Kappa Delta Pi, you have conferred an honor upon me in inviting me to speak to you tonight. When I was in college studying to become a teacher, we had no such honorary society. If we had, I should have wanted to be a member of it. You are to be congratulated upon your election to distinction of membership. I am sure that you will always be proud to have been judged worthy of Kappa Delta Pi.

I have just finished reading again—for the third time, I think—the book *Joan and Peter*, by H. G. Wells. *Joan and Peter* is, as Wells subtitles the novel, “The Story of an Education”—the education of a boy and a girl in England. The story culminates in their romance and marriage during World War I. And so the book is somewhat out of date. Yet I find in it ideas of education that seem very up to date and thought provoking.

In the story, four people had prominent parts in the schooling of the orphans, Joan and Peter. The earliest of these educational influences was Miss Murgatroyd. She was headmistress of an elementary school named the “School of St. George and the Venerable Bede.” Miss Murgatroyd, to quote H. G. Wells in part, “was a sturdy rufous lady . . . who passed readily from anger to enthusiasm and back again . . . she felt that her place was in the van. She did not mind very much where the van was going so long as she was in it. She was a born teacher, too, and so overpoweringly moved to teach that what she taught was a secondary consideration. She wanted to do

something for mankind—it hardly mattered what.

“A love disappointment . . . had exacerbated in Miss Murgatroyd a passion for the plastic affections of children; she had resolved to give herself wholly to the creation of the new sort of school embodying all the best ideals of the time. She saw herself as a richly-robed, creative prophetess among the clustering and adoring young.

“Miss Murgatroyd was indiscriminately receptive of new educational ideas; she meant to miss nothing; and some of the ideas were quite good and some were quite silly; and nearly every holiday she went off with a large notebook and much enthusiasm to educational conferences and summer schools and got some more.”

Miss Murgatroyd was a great believer in the project method; she was an early, ardent progressive. “The regular teaching,” says Wells, “was the least important thing in the life of the School of St. George and the Venerable Bede. It existed largely in order to be put on one side.” Her school was a vehicle for fads—one term it was the British Empire and Queen Victoria; the next it was hand work, and all books were put aside; and then it was conversational French (two bright French girls having come to class).

The wonder of it was that anyone learned reading or writing or arithmetic or spelling or penmanship. If so, it was incidental to his or her education. “Miss Murgatroyd’s school was indeed healthy and pretty and full of physical happiness, but the teaching and mental training that went on in it was of a lower quality. Mental strength and mental balance do not show

* Address to Epsilon Beta Chapter, Kappa Delta Pi, Tulane University.

in quite the same way as their physical equivalents. *Minds do not grow as bodies do, through leaving the windows open and singing in the sun.*"

As the story unfolds, Peter was dramatically kidnapped and held in the High Cross Preparatory School—Mr. Mainwairing, headmaster. "Mr. Mainwairing was a schoolman, not by choice, but by reason of the weaknesses of his character. It was card-playing more than anything else that had made him an educator." His father, dying suddenly, had left him 3000 pounds. So for a while he lived high, wide, and handsome at Cambridge University. And when his poker-playing friends had stripped him of his cash, he left college. He advertised himself as "of gentlemanly appearance" and "good at games" and found a job in a preparatory school at Brighton. Thence he went to a big grammar school, and thence came to High Cross, first as assistant, then son-in-law and partner, and now as sole proprietor.

"Of course Mr. Mainwairing had no special training as a teacher. He had no ideas about education at all. He had no social philosophy. He had never asked why he was alive or what he was up to. Instinct, perhaps, warned him that the answer might be disagreeable. . . . He taught as he had been taught; his teachers had done the same; he was the last link of a long chain of tradition that had perhaps in the beginning had some element of intention in it as to what was to be made of the pupil. . . . High Cross School, like numberless schools in Great Britain in those days, had forgotten what it was for. Certain school books existed, God alone knew why, and the classes were taken through them."

Well, it took a fight with the school bully and a brutal caning by the headmaster to give Peter the courage to run away. And then he came under the guardianship of his uncle, Oswald Sydenham, newly re-

turned from Empire-building in Africa.

Oswald Sydenham is really H. G. Wells, I think—obstinate, idealistic, opinionated, brilliant, modern to the core, questioning tradition, terribly in earnest about life and its meanings and possibilities, with a sublime, unjustified faith in education. Oswald says: "I'm getting to be a fanatic about education. Give me the school of the world and I would make a Millennium in half a century. . . . We don't make half of what we *could* make of our children. We don't make a quarter—not a tenth. They could know ever so much more, think ever so much better."

Oswald Sydenham's search for the proper schools for Joan and Peter permits the author to ask some searching and embarrassing questions. "What sort of boy are you trying to make?" he would ask a headmaster. "How will he differ from an uneducated boy? I don't mean in manners, I mean how will he differ in imagination? . . . Don't you *know* that education is building up an imagination? Then what is education doing? What sort of a curriculum is my ward to go through? Why is he to *do* Latin and Greek? Is he going to read or write or speak these languages? What will my ward know about Africa, about India, about Italy, about engineering, about Darwin? Will he be able to write good English? Do your boys do much German? Russian? Spanish? Will he know anything about the elementary facts of economics? All our everyday life depends on that. What do you teach about Socialism? Nothing! Did you say Nothing? But he may be a member of Parliament some day. Anyhow he'll be a voter. But if you can't teach him everything why not leave out these blank classics of yours?"

Oswald Sydenham (H. G. Wells, in fact) found that "the disposition of the mass of men is always on the side of custom against innovation. *The clear-headed*

effort of yesterday tends always to become the unintelligent routine of tomorrow. So long as we get along we go along. . . . Foresight dies when the imagination slumbers. The school system had the inertia of a spinning top. The most thoroughly and completely mis-taught of one generation became the mis-teachers of the next. . . ." It became clear to Oswald that the real work of higher education, the discussion of God, of the state, of sex, of all the great issues of life, was being elaborately evaded in the formal education of the country, and being pervertedly or sensationaly taught and discussed everywhere else.

At last Oswald Sydenham met Mr. Mackinder, principal of White Court Preparatory School. If Oswald Sydenham is really H. G. Wells, then surely Mr. Mackinder is F. W. Sanderson, I mean the heroic Sanderson of Oundle, along with Chips, one of the few legendary, although almost contemporary, teachers of England. Wells wrote a biography of him entitled: *The Story of a Great Schoolmaster*. You might well put that book on your reading list, if you aren't familiar with it.

"I'm looking for a school for my nephew," said Oswald.

"You want him here?"

"Well—do you mind if first of all I see something of the school?"

The inspection was unusual in that it was a satisfactory one.

"Your school is about as good a school as I've seen or am likely to see. But I had an idea," Oswald continued, "of just getting the very best out of those two youngsters, especially Peter; of making every hour of his school work a gift of so much power or skill or subtlety, of opening the world to him like a magic book. . . ."

"There are no such schools," said Mr. Mackinder, bitterly.

Later, at dinner, Mr. Mackinder spoke

of his own youth. "I made up my mind that teaching should be my religion," he said. He told of the difficulties he had encountered in his attempts to get any pedagogic science or training. "This is the most difficult profession in the world," he said, "and the most important. Yet it is not . . . endowed. Buildings and institutions are endowed, but not teachers." He had read and learnt what he could about teaching; he had served for small salaries in schools that seemed living and efficient; finally he had built his school with his own money. He had had the direst difficulties in getting a staff together. "What can one expect?" he said. "We pay them hardly better than shop assistants—less than bank clerks. You see the relative importance of things in the British mind."

It was in the White Court Preparatory School under Mr. Mackinder's tutelage that Peter grew up and became the useful, world-minded citizen, and war veteran of the later chapters. And here I must leave the story.

In conclusion let me stress this, that education is the most difficult profession in the world, and the most important. Education is growth, but minds do not grow as bodies do, through leaving the windows open and singing in the sun. The greatest difficulty the teacher must overcome is the deadening effect of tradition. The clear-headed effort of yesterday tends always to become the unintelligent routine of tomorrow. And it is dangerous to re-examine the customary—established privilege represents change. The greatest need in education today is the endowment of teachers. Buildings and institutions are endowed, but not teachers. If the problems of the world are to be solved, they will be solved by intelligence—intelligence directed and disciplined by proper education. Therefore, the teacher is the key worker in the making of the future.

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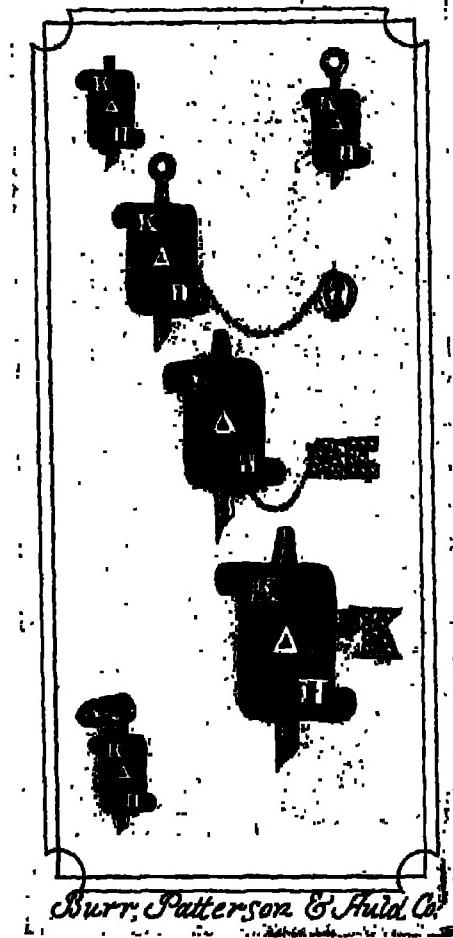
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Behind the By-Lines

Continuing the series *Building and Defending Democracy*, Judge Florence Ellinwood Allen, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals of the Sixth District, writes on the subject *A New Birth of Freedom*. Judge Allen is a member of the Laureate Chapter. She has had a noteworthy career as a judge. The honorary degree, LL.D. has been conferred on her by nineteen American colleges and universities. She wrote the book, *This Constitution of Ours*. A room in the new law center of New York University, her alma mater, is to be named in her honor.

The Passing of a Pattern shows the changing situation of American life in the rural areas. The author, Louis Bromfield, has kindly given his permission to reprint this article from his recent book, *Malabar Farm*, which is an analysis of the farm situation as seen by this skilled and observant author. He now devotes himself to the subject of land and its conservation. Our readers will know him from his many books, especially "The Green Bay Tree," "Early Autumn (Pulitzer Prize)," "Night in Bombay," "Wild Is the River," "Until the Day Break," and "The Rains Came." His decorations include the Legion of Honor and the Croix de Guerre.

Ned H. Dearborn, President of the National Safety Council since 1944, is the author of *Accidents—A Threat to Democracy!* Dr. Dearborn has been a teacher, principal and superintendent of schools, and has filled many executive positions, among them Director of Teacher Training, State Education Department, New York State; Director of the Institute of Education, New York University; and Dean of the Division of General Education, New York University. He is the author of several publications in the field of Education.

Should Communists Teach in American Universities? is the question posed by George E. Axtelle, Chairman of the Department of History and Philosophy of Education at New York University. He is now President of the Philosophy of Education Society. He came to New York University in 1946 after several years of service with the government in Washington, D.C. He is co-author (with B. H. Raup), of the "Discipline of Practical Judgment in a Democracy," and editor (with Wattenberg) of "Teachers for Democracy."

Communists Should Not Teach in American Colleges, by President Raymond B. Allen, of the University of Washington, presents a different point of view from that taken in the preceding article. President Allen has had wide experience as an executive. Among the leading positions he held prior to assuming his present position are Associate Dean in Charge of Graduate Studies, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University; Dean, Wayne University College of Medicine, and Executive Dean of the University of Illinois Chicago Colleges. He is author of "Medical Education and the Changing Order," and made numerous contributions to medical journals.

Harold C. Hand, of the College of Education, University of Illinois, has challenged the idea that our schools are free. In his article *Hidden Tuition Costs in Illinois High Schools*, he gives facts for 80 high schools studied in 1948.

Music in the Education of the Whole Man is contributed by Siegmund Levaire, Assistant Professor in the Department of Music, the University of Chicago. He is conductor of *Collegium Musicum*, and also

(Continued on page 504)

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Your subscription to THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM expires with this issue, and you should renew it at once so you will not miss any numbers.

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The present policy will continue during the ensuing year and THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM will feature original articles, book reviews and news from the chapters. The magazine is published quarterly—in November, January, March, and May. Supplements, containing chapter and general news of the Society, will be published in November and March.

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THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

VOLUME XIII



NUMBER 4

MAY

1949

Building and Defending Democracy

II. A New Birth of Freedom

FLORENCE ELLINWOOD ALLEN

LAST summer I was once again stirred when coming out of Westminster Abbey in London, by seeing the statue of Abraham Lincoln standing there in the very shadow of that English shrine. Then I remembered the day at Gettysburg when Edward Everett was the orator and the President of the United States was asked to make "a few remarks." Everett's two-hour oration now is buried in the books but the words of Lincoln are written in the hearts of people all over the world. He called that day for a new birth of freedom; and, of course, freedom has constantly to be recreated. It cannot be written into any charter and handed down ready made. Each generation has to create liberty anew for itself. After a war it is particularly true that freedom has to be re-created, for a war emergency is like desperate illness in a family. When the father or mother lies at death's door, the

children are bound to be neglected. Both in the Civil War and in the Two World Wars the usual safeguards of freedom and justice were pushed aside because of the war emergency. Lincoln knew after the Civil War, and we know today, that there has to be a new birth of freedom. That is why we consider here how to create and to maintain democracy.

I

As we view the downfall of the great human liberties in many countries, we begin to understand that here in the United States we have an almost perfect structure and environment for securing democracy. But securing democracy is not ever a fixed achievement. It is a growth.

Whether we view democracy as a system of popular self-government in which all persons are accorded political and social rights without hereditary or

arbitrary distinction, or as a way of life in which the equality of individuals is generally recognized, America as nearly approaches democracy as any country in the world. Governmental democracy was established and has been extended by the Constitution of the United States and of the various states; and freedom from the rigid social restrictions of England and of the continent, combined with the enormous leveling power of the frontier and the movement to the West, gave us a democratic approach to our fellows.

That certain of the main objects of the Constitution are economic cannot be denied. A government cannot survive which has not the power to advance business and trade interests. But the Constitution goes far beyond this. It gave the war power to Congress and the treaty-making power, not to the President alone, but also to the Senate. This revolutionary advance has given us many decades of peace, because it has, as Mason advocated in the Constitutional Convention, "clogged" instead of "facilitating" war. It denied the property qualification both for voters and for officials. The colonies generally imposed a property qualification as a prerequisite to the right to vote, and even higher property qualifications for the right to hold office. Proposals were made and repeated in the Convention to impose similar property qualifications upon the right to vote for the lower House of Congress and upon membership in Congress, the judiciary, and the executive branch of the government. Gouverneur Morris said he thought

"property ought to be taken into the estimate as well as the number of inhabitants. Life and liberty were generally said to be of more value than property. An accurate view of the matter would nevertheless prove that property was the main object of Society."

Typical of the opposition to Morris's idea was the statement of Dickinson that "he doubted the policy of interweaving into a Republican Constitution a veneration for wealth. He had always understood that a veneration for poverty and virtue were the objects of republican encouragement. It seemed improper that any man of merit should be subjected to the disabilities (of a property qualification for the right to hold office) in a Republic where merit was understood to form the great title to public trust, honors, and rewards."

James Wilson stated that he "could not agree that property was the sole or primary object of government and society. The cultivation and improvement of the human mind was the most noble object." Benjamin Franklin said that some of the richest men he knew were the "greatest rogues." Although the proposition that wealth should be represented as such, both in office holding and in the electoral requirements, was repeatedly pressed, it was signally defeated. This was a striking victory for democracy.

In addition, the Constitution, and state constitutions patterned after it, encouraged the cooperative financing of great projects for the benefit of all, and this fact contributed to our democratic way of life. The Preamble to the Con-

stitution declared that government was established "to promote the general welfare," and this was repeated in the body of the instrument (Art. I, Sec. 8). This had not been in general the purpose of government. The special welfare of the nobility and the ruling classes had been the particular concern of government. The corruption of certain American cities so rightly condemned at the beginning of this century is not more shocking than the bold assumption, under the European monarchies, that the benefits and emoluments of government were for the ruling class alone.

One example will suffice to show how in Revolutionary times the government of England was run for the ruling classes. As told by Carl Van Doren in his distinguished biography of Franklin, while Franklin was in London prior to the Revolution, representing the colonies, he was visited by his son-in-law, who came to London with a thousand pounds in hand, intending with it to buy a colonial office in Pennsylvania. These offices were for sale, and Franklin completely accepted the practice. A man of the highest integrity in public affairs, Franklin manifested no surprise either at his son-in-law's intention or at the size of the proposed payment (some \$5,000 in our money, and in those times a very substantial amount). He dissuaded the young man from his purpose, but not upon ethical grounds. He argued that it was unsatisfactory to make one's living through political office, and persuaded his son-in-law to remain in private business.

In contrast to the principle enforced

in England and on the continent, that the benefits of government were intended only for the few, our forefathers believed, and stated in our organic law, that government should be run for the general welfare. We therefore proceeded to establish public institutions, paid for by all, owned by all, accessible to all—schools, universities, libraries, roads, parks, to a degree never before witnessed in history. This relieved the citizens from the financial burden of procuring these advantages at prohibitive individual cost, and from the frustration of desiring such advantages and being deprived of them. Certainly it is no exaggeration to say that to a degree never before realized we established, under the Constitution, democratic access to great public resources.

II

Some of the constitutional provisions to which we pay scant attention and take for granted are most carefully designed to preserve our liberties. The provision that the Congress should assemble once a year was based upon memories of genuine oppression. The failure of Charles First to call the Parliament for eleven years, during which time he exacted forced loans from his barons, laid tonnage charges on ships, imposed fines and chartered municipalities in order to raise money, had not been forgotten. The Parliament of France at that time had not been called into session for over one hundred years. The Colonists realized the importance of having their legislatures meet regularly. In the Declaration of Independ-

ence they complained that George III had "dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people, and that he had refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected." The framers of the Constitution were determined that the representatives of the people should not be prevented from meeting.

The Bill of Rights, later written with its guaranties of freedom of press, freedom of speech, the right of assembly, trial by jury, freedom of religion, was not included in the draft of the Constitution submitted by the Convention but was, of course, under overwhelming popular pressure added by the first Congress. But provisions as to bills of attainder, trial for treason, suspension of the writ of habeas corpus, etc., guaranteed freedom as the framers of the Constitution understood it, and indeed as it needs to be guaranteed today. The bill of attainder was a parliamentary act by which without a jury and without hearing in court, often without seeing the witnesses against him, a man was tried, convicted, and sometimes executed. It was usually employed in cases of alleged treason and the blood was attainted or corrupted legally so that the defendant could not inherit property from others, nor his children from him. Lord Strafford, minister of Charles I, was impeached by the British House of Lords and defended himself so ably that it appeared that he would be acquitted. His enemies, determined to convict him, with or without evidence, and with or without trial, forced a bill of

attainder through Parliament and Strafford was executed.

The writ of habeas corpus makes it impossible for a man to be held in jail indefinitely without trial. The *lettres de cachet* under which so many liberals languished in the Bastile had their counterpart in England where the trial of men charged with treason could be indefinitely postponed. The provision that no person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court, grew out of such tragic incidents as the execution of Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been convicted fifteen years before on the deposition of a single accomplice who was not examined in open court so that Raleigh had no chance to answer his statements. The accomplice had already retracted his accusation before Raleigh was killed.

However, some of the most significant provisions of the Constitution are not self-executing. They do not contain clauses which establish means to give effect to their provisions. They simply declare broad principles. These principles are enforced by the courts, and courts have jurisdiction only over those questions which are brought before them. But there may be no case in which a man can assert his claim. If a man speaks on peace in the public square of some American city, and is beaten by a police officer, as has happened at times in our great cities, as a rule he has no redress. He has the constitutional right to speak. But the police officer does not have in mind the Bill of Rights nor that the Constitution is the supreme law of

the land. The speaker himself may not understand his rights. The bystanders or the crowd may not be aware that great constitutional liberties are at stake and so they do not support him. We have not insisted that the Bill of Rights be taught to and understood by all officials and by the masses of the people.

There are many laws much more universally enforced on behalf of the public than those embodied in the Bill of Rights. The traffic statutes and regulations are enforced not only in court, but in general by administrative officials, and by the public itself. The police officer, the motorist, the pedestrian, all realize the difference between the red and green light. But relatively few people understand that there is a green light in America for the peaceable expression of opinion not only for themselves but also for others who violently disagree with them on crucial questions. The personal guarantees of the Constitution can be enforced to the fullest only by public education and by public opinion. For, after all, in this country the law is ours, made for us and by us, and we have an obligation in its enforcement.

Eternal vigilance is difficult, it makes demands on our finest, but our most reluctant, characteristics. Liberty and democracy and honor do not come to us ready made. A man does not secure his education by deputy, nor delegate another to eat for him, and his relation to democracy is just as personal as his relation to food and education.

In the early days democracy functioned naturally and easily through the town meeting. Today in America it is

increasingly difficult to keep the flame of democracy burning from distant centers of government, in place of the local neighborhood center which is near each man's hearthstone. But, in spite of blundering, the first great intent still stands in America, and my faith in the democracy we have and in what has been called "the infinitude of the private citizen" has been renewed many times. The private citizen's faith can implement the Constitution.

III

The private citizen's faith, intelligently mobilized, can also preserve democracy. I shall not endeavor to treat this question from every possible ramification, as for instance, how to erect and maintain democracy in countries other than our own. Our immediate task is to hold our ground in America. I shall discuss only one all-important factor. The surest protection, both for our democratic political structure and for our democratic way of life, is to educate, to mobilize, and to express public opinion.

In order to educate public opinion we must teach through the home, the school, the church, the press, and the radio, what the American system means to the individual and the group. The citizens must understand the personal value to them of the Bill of Rights and its guarantees of individual liberty. They must realize that under our democracy education, opportunity, and personal rights are more extensive than anywhere else in the world. We must also teach that these rights and opportunities are not self-executing; that they must be

understood, cherished, and defended by the people if they are to be implemented and enforced in our daily life. We must educate the public not only to understand its needs and its rights but to realize its responsibilities, not only in voting on election day but in forming and expressing intelligent opinion on public questions. On each and every day must citizens be active in maintaining democracy.

We need some loosely knit, voluntary, wholly nonpartisan national organization of public-spirited citizens in order to bring about the constant education and timely mobilization of public opinion. I suggest that we need something like the Committees of Correspondence which were such a powerful aid to establishing union of the colonies. So little is generally known of these groups that a somewhat detailed description of them is necessary.

In the pre-Revolutionary days one of the most powerful propaganda agencies of the colonial rebellion against British rule came into existence. Whenever the power of Great Britain and her agents was disavowed, that power came immediately into the hands of the people. The people then elected their representatives to take authority and to communicate with their fellows in other towns, counties, and colonies. These men with delegated authority from the people became the Committee of Correspondence. The colonies were composed of local groups widely separated. Through correspondence unity of purpose became a reality. In the days when roads were often impassable and travel

at best was very slow, communication was essential. Not only were these committees a channel for public opinion—they created public opinion. They were the committees that worked up the Revolution. They were the germ of a government.

No one individual produced the committees—they were the outgrowth of the spirit of union. In 1754, Peters had originated his scheme for the federation of the British colonies; churches had communication with each other; merchants united to protest restrictive trade laws; secret societies were in existence. It was natural then that on November 2, 1772, Samuel Adams in Boston should propose "That a Committee of Correspondence be appointed, to consist of 21 Persons, to state the rights of the colonists, and of the province in particular, as men, as Christians, and as subjects; to communicate and publish the same to the several towns and to the world, as the sense of this town, with the infringements and violations thereof that have been, or from time to time may be made." The Boston committee held regular meetings, started committees in nearby towns, and corresponded with them; spread publicity through the papers, etc.; and made public opinion. They "heated the popular temper to the boiling point of revolution and then drew from it the authority to act." By January, 1773, eighty or more towns in Massachusetts had Committees of Correspondence and were the nucleus of a local federation.

But they were based upon popular impulse—they had no constitutional au-

thority. The next step was the appointment of Committees of Correspondence by the assemblies of the various colonies. On March 12, 1773, the Virginia House of Burgesses appointed its committee "to obtain the most early and authentic intelligence of all such acts and resolutions of the British Parliament or proceedings of administration as may relate to or affect the British colonies in America; and to keep up and maintain a correspondence and communication with our sister colonies respecting those important considerations; and the result of such proceedings from time to time to lay before this house." Soon the New England colonies of Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts elected committees from their assemblies; then came the southern group of South Carolina, Georgia, Maryland, Delaware, and North Carolina; and, finally, early in 1774, from the middle group New York and New Jersey joined. All of these committees were now appointed by the assemblies from their own members. These groups were not highly effective because assembly members wanted to get home when the assembly adjourned; also, since the members were responsible to the assembly, they were afraid to commit themselves. However, the committees demonstrated the value of union. Now a new method evolved, of which New Jersey was the best type. The free-holders of one township met and appointed Committees of Correspondence to meet and to correspond with other town Committees of Correspondence in the county. From these town committees

county committees were chosen to correspond with other county committees and hold a convention when desired. In the same way a provincial committee was chosen by and from the county committee. These committees corresponded with those of the other colonies.

It was necessary for the Committee of Correspondence to take a matter of local interest and show its identity with the collective interest of the colonies. The tea situation in Boston was an illustration. A tea ship appeared in Boston Harbor. The Boston Committee of Correspondence forced the owner to pledge that the ship would not be entered before a certain date. By correspondence other towns united to prevent the landing of the tea. Then the committee communicated with nearby colonies to get a joint opposition. The result was destruction of the tea in the Boston Tea Party. The committees worked through the press, through public meetings, through the mob. They made the other colonies understand a local issue.

On May 23, 1774, New York replied to a letter from the Committee of Correspondence in Boston concerning the Port Act and suggested a meeting. The Continental Congress was the result.

Thus developed a scheme of true representative government. From this point the duties of the committees increased. They must inspect imports, publish the names of importers so that in a proper case they would be boycotted; they must relay news such as that of the battle of Lexington; they must urge the people not to help the British in building barracks (in other words, labor must

strike)—hence there was an inevitable division of labor. Subcommittees such as the committee of safety were formed to execute delegated duties.

As with the early organization of the colonies, the beginnings of these committees seemed to contain no thought of separation from Great Britain. Their letters were full of expressions of loyalty to the Crown. But, as soon as they were started, they spread like wildfire and became the agents of revolution. Daniel Leonard, a Tory, wrote: "This is the foulest, subtlest, and most venomous serpent ever issued from the egg of sedition. I saw the small seed when it was implanted; it was a grain of mustard. I have watched the plant until it has become a great tree." John Adams said that the Committee of Correspondence conception embodied the whole Revolution.

Might we not return to the methods of our forefathers for the education and mobilization of public opinion? We might well reconstitute "Committees of Correspondence" through which information on pressing matters could be sent out to the people and their action could be secured. We have the advantage today of the radio and it should be possible through the establishment of a nonpartisan national, full-time committee of public-spirited men and women to point out to the public at large the measures upon which they should express themselves.

The effectiveness of this method has already been demonstrated by such an organization as Mrs. Catt's Conference on the Causes and Cures of War, which

sprang into the breach and secured the entrance of the United States into the World Court. On the call of this committee over ten thousand public meetings were held with reference to the ratification of the Kellogg-Briand Pact for the Renunciation of War, and leaders in the Senate gave the credit for ratification to this powerful expression of public opinion.

IV

If we are to mobilize public opinion and use it effectively, we must know what it is on any specific point. James Bryce said that in no country is public opinion so powerful as in the United States, but that the greatest weakness of government by public opinion in America is the difficulty of ascertaining it. "The organs of opinion," he said, "seem almost as numerous as the people themselves, and they are all engaged in representing their own view as that of the people."

We have had a very recent illustration of this fact. While every one knows that President Truman won the election, publicists, columnists and plain citizens are still arguing over the mandate that he received. Was it a mandate to repeal the Taft-Hartley Act, root and branch, or was it a mandate to maintain agricultural prices, or was it a mandate for increased social security?

The fact is that while we have a democracy in the sense that the whole people, as Bryce said, express their sovereign will by their votes, because elections are held at set periods, the choice has become a choice between the election

or defeat of the candidate. Perhaps it is not correct to assert, as is sometimes done, that we vote merely for men instead of for measures. Countless thousands support candidates because of their announced stand on certain governmental policies. Certainly some labor men favored President Truman because of his pro-labor stand; but how many voted for him because of labor questions, how many because of farm issues, how many because of a general desire not to change our national policies? It would be valuable in the work of the present Congress to know how many million voters want the Taft-Hartley Act repealed, how many want it retained, how many want it kept with modifications. But the presidential election sheds no definite light on this. The great gap in our political structure is that we have no systematic, organized way of expressing opinion specifically upon important public questions. Perhaps, there should be some form of national referendum. It has been proposed that this should apply to the declaration of war by the Congress. While under the Constitution the power to declare war is expressly vested in the Congress, and this could not be changed except by the difficult process of constitutional amendment, the expression of public opinion as an advisory matter could be permitted by statute. A statute could provide, for instance, that upon the filing of a certain number of signatures, distributed through, for example, one-half of the forty-eight states, a vote could be held in the usual polling places upon any national question, such as the institution of war, the establish-

ment of the Marshall Plan, or the support of the North Atlantic Pact. The calling of such a referendum would result in a public debate which necessarily would educate and mobilize public opinion.

A referendum, of course, can be used against as well as for democracy. Because of this, would it be wise to link up such a national vote with the schools and libraries? Debates on the question to be referred ought to be held all over the country in the schoolhouses, and bibliographies and materials should be made available through the libraries. This in turn would insure that the referendum should educate as well as express public opinion.

But even if we educate, mobilize and express public opinion it must conform to an ethical standard if democracy is to be preserved. The underlying basis of democracy is the freedom and worth of the individual. To recognize the worth of others is as important as to demand rights for ourselves. We cannot truly secure benefit from enforcing our own rights unless we seek to give the same rights to others. It is particularly in this ethical field that we have been found wanting in our education for democracy.

Is it too much to say that in general we have taught Americans to enjoy privileges instead of to carry civic obligations? This statement must, of course, be qualified, because the Marshall Plan is evidence of the fact that we begin to wake up to our weighty obligations. The great social projects instituted by government within our generation are evidence of a changing public attitude and of a

realization of civic responsibility. And yet we surely have a long way to go in order to impress upon the mass of citizens their responsibility with reference to preserving democracy.

V

We have failed to make use of the vivid and inspiring material which lies at hand to stir up our citizens, young and old, to an understanding of and a devoted love for the democratic system. Here in the United States, we have as dramatic an opportunity to vivify life, through ethical group action, as the world has ever known. Any intelligent boy and girl can understand what it means that not so very long before our Constitution, historically speaking, a man was executed in England for writing a book that was never published that the Parliament, instead of the King, should be supreme; and that the judge charged the jury in that case that this book contains all malice and revenge that are ever possible because it sets the Parliament above the King. Any intelligent boy or girl, given the sense of ownership of America and of partnership in its great undertakings, would thrill to the fact that the property qualification was rejected when the Constitution was written.

Every intelligent boy and girl, given the sense of partnership, can understand that when the First Amendment to the Constitution was written, a mighty landmark was established in human freedom. Every intelligent boy and girl can understand that when this amendment was written, freedom of religion did not exist, not even in this country—

that members of many sects had been harried and humiliated and beaten, put in jail, and hanged, and that in other countries of the world they had been subjected to all sorts of indignities and death; and that here, by some miracle, we wrote in the First Amendment that there should be no established religion nor any prohibition of the free exercise of religion. We have a perfect structure and environment here for freedom of religion. Our only problem is to practice it. Every child can understand that if we retain the guaranties of the Bill of Rights the trial of Cardinal Mindszenty of Hungary, the imprisonment in a concentration camp of Dr. Moeller in Nazi Germany, the trials of the Protestant ministers in Bulgaria, are impossible. Every intelligent boy and girl can understand that today in countries of the Old World millions of men and women are still imprisoned in slave labor camps. So long as we observe the constitutional principle that "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction," such a basic violation of human rights can never exist in America.

What is true of the children is also true of the adults. The citizens of full age who under our modern social development have increased leisure and opportunity for study and intelligent discussion must be awakened to their obligations.

I refuse to believe that Americans cannot thrill to the romance of their

own culture just as strongly as Fascists, Communists, and Nazis. As Jane Addams said:

"It would seem a golden opportunity for those to whom is committed the task of spiritual instruction, for to preach and seek justice in human affairs is one of the oldest obligations of religion and morality. All that would be necessary would be to attach this teaching to the contemporary world in such wise that the eager youth might feel a tug upon his faculties, and a sense of participation

in the moral life about him."

Here in the United States we still have the most nearly free field in the world for working out into practice the principles of democracy. While the Constitution is still in force, while men and women can still speak their thoughts without fear of imprisonment or death, we could all of us, working together, reveal the meaning and inculcate the love of the American system. This is the way to preserve democracy, to preserve America.

The cause of America is in a great measure the cause of all mankind. Many circumstances hath, and will arise, which are not local, but universal, and through which the principles of all loves of mankind are affected, and in the event of which, their affections are interested. The laying a country desolate with fire and sword, declaring war against the natural rights of all mankind, and encircling the defenders thereof from the face of the earth, is the concern of every man to whom nature hath given the power of feeling; of which class, regardless of party censure, is the author.—THOMAS PAINE, Preface to Common Sense.

Commencement Address

JACOB C. SOLOVAY

Cling fast to learning, you who bid farewell,
With ribboned scroll clutched tightly in your hand,
Proud in your moment's wonder as you stand
Between two worlds, like one caught in a spell.

Wisdom is living, yes, but where you live
Determines wisdom too, and printed words
Have given man the wings of eager birds,
To ride the peaks which only mountains give.

Here at the first great Rubicon you quail,
Between the sheltered past and what will be,
With backward glances and uneasy looks.
Have courage, for without it you will fail;
Have justice, it will help to make you free;
And burn your bridges, but don't burn your books.

The Passing of a Pattern

Louis BROMFIELD

For horticulture and good husbandry are eternally living professions, constantly growing and changing their methods and manners, and subject to all manner of pressures from economy and science and philosophy.

—Voltaire

*I*N *Pleasant Valley* much space was given to "The Plan" under which Malabar Farm was set up. It was a co-operative plan with a good many goals which appeared Utopian. The important point is that these goals were recognized in the very beginning as Utopian and most of them as perhaps unattainable. The Plan was something to aim at and after eight years it is remarkable how many of those goals have been attained. War intervened and took away Pete and Wayne, which was a great loss, and Max, after organizing the farms and setting them in operation, stepped out, to head the Northern Ohio Co-operative Breeders Association, one of the most important American centers of artificial insemination with all its vast implications of better economic conditions for the farmer-cattle breeder throughout the nation. Max, I think, regretted leaving and I know we all regretted seeing him go. But it was a job and an opportunity for which he has been specially trained and for which he had a great enthusiasm, and then Bob Huge stepped in to take

his place. And finally the pattern became set to include four families and ourselves and it appears likely that it will change little for years to come save for the addition of another family or two from time to time as our acres continue to increase their yields.

Of these original goals certainly one—a good life with mutual enthusiasm and co-operation in an undertaking—has been attained. And certainly the checking of all soil and water loss and the restoration of eroded or depleted land has been realized and far more quickly and to a degree far beyond anything even the most optimistic of us had hoped. The change in the very landscape from one of abandoned fields, of gullied desolation of hills brown and red with sorrel and broom sedge to greenness has been as remarkable as the steadily darkening color of the soil as the fertility rose with gains in production ranging from 50 to 1,500 per cent per acre. Where once the same acreage could scarcely feed thirty head of cattle, winter and summer, ten times that number could flourish today with abundant forage, grain and pasture always in reserve. Abundance, not only in crops and livestock but in living as well, has been brought into being and the actual value of the land on the Federal Land Bank basis of appraisal has increased three or four times.

And there have been many less tangible satisfactions—such things as mutual

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enthusiasm and interest and the deep pleasure of having succeeded at a tough job. An enthusiasm and a pleasure shared not only by all those living permanently at Malabar but as well by the boys who come each summer to bale the hay and the straw and clip the pastures and fill the silos. They must all have been happy for each year they return during the school months to spend a great part of their Christmas and Easter holidays working with us in the big dairy and feeding barns. We have seen them grow from boys into men and go off to war as new and younger teams came in. They return to visit us and bring back their girls to meet us and all during the war we had letters from the older ones at least once a month from Okinawa or Calcutta or Stuttgart or other remote and unlikely places. The oldest ones are getting married and before long will make a grandparent of Malabar Farm. The contact with these boys and the character and the sense of responsibility they have shown has certainly been one of the richest of our experiences and has served to raise a great confidence in the future of the nation which produces such specimens.

And of course there has been the satisfaction and the pleasure of friendship and co-operation with the neighbors and the people of the surrounding villages in a life far removed from the neurotic, snarling life of the city subway. And there have been scores and hundreds of new friends coming from all parts of this country and from all over the world whom we should never have met save for Malabar Farm and a mutual inter-

est in agriculture and scores and hundreds of letters from all parts of the world.

Not the least of the satisfactions has come from the visitors, the thousands of people, mostly dirt or city farmers or scientists who come on Sundays from late April to well into November. They come in shiny cars, in jalopies, in motor buses—from two hundred to a thousand each Sunday throughout the summer, in such numbers that mere curiosity-seekers have long ago been eliminated and sent on their way and the boys have had to set themselves up on Sunday afternoons as traffic cops with a log chain and tractor always ready to pull stray cars out of a ditch or mud hole. There have been Farm Bureau groups, Granges, 4-H Clubs, Future Farmers of America, Soil Conservation District Association, G.I. Vocational classes, City Farmers Clubs, many of them coming by bus as far as Flint and Saginaw in Michigan and Buffalo in New York State.

Most of them are good and serious and successful men—the City Farmers as well as the dirt farmers—most of whom, like ourselves, are making contributions to cattle, swine and poultry breeding and to the New Agriculture. More than half of them are young men and many of them are boys—the group which will have to cherish our soils and feed not only ourselves but a large part of the world from now on until Doom's Day. They are of all stations of life and all degrees of affluence, from the symbolism of the big shiny Cadillac to that of the jalopy containing a young tenant

getting a start with a wife beside him and four or five children in the back seat. But they all have one thing in common—an eye which shines at sight of a beautiful heifer or a shiny fat steer or a thick, heavy stand of lush pasture and a willingness to sit on the fence and talk farming and cattle breeding until darkness falls. At Malabar we have learned much from the new friends who come on Sundays.

In long processions on foot or in cars they follow the long winding lane to the top of the Bailey hill which Phillippe, one of the boys, long ago named "Mount Jeez." The name might be indecent or even blasphemous but for the fact that it came about spontaneously and reverently. From the top of the hill there is certainly one of the most beautiful views in the world, across wild woodland and both rich and desolated fields, of all Pleasant Hill lake, Pleasant Valley and the valley of the Clear Fork. On a clear day you can see into four counties. From the top of Mount Jeez the whole landscape tells its own story both of weedy, abandoned fields, ruined worn-out land, pastured sickly woodlots and of farms which are green, where the soil is dark and rich and the crops stand strong and opulent in the fields. The green farms—our own and those of some of our neighbors stand out like jewels. They make you feel good, and they make you see what all our valley and all our state and nation could be under a good agriculture. Up there on the hilltop with the whole of Malabar laid out like a map below, the talk goes on for an hour, two hours, sometimes

three, and afterward, those who haven't already left to go home to do the chores, move down to the ancient spring house on the Bailey Place and drink their fill of the icy water which gushes directly out of the sandstone cliff behind the house to rush through the watercress beds on its way to the big fish pond across the road.

One by one, family by family, the crowd slips away, until at last there remains as the sun begins to go down only a handful of farmers gathered, usually in the milk parlor where Al and Jim are doing the evening milking. Sometimes Sunday is a long, hard day but always it is a rewarding and satisfactory one. By ten o'clock bed feels pretty good and there isn't any trouble about sleeping.

In the original Plan for Malabar set forth in *Pleasant Valley* great emphasis was placed on diversified farming and self-sufficiency. These two goals have not been reached, not because we failed in the attempt but because under the changing pattern of modern economic life both goals have become, in so far as such a unit as Malabar is concerned, uneconomic and even expensive. Although Max had always had doubts concerning the soundness of both goals in modern agriculture, I had held out strongly for both of them. Looking back now, I think there were two reasons for my insistence: (1) The fact that I had recently come from Europe where war appeared inevitable, and because of having lived for years outside the United States, I knew the hardships and deprivations brought about by wars, ration-

ing, inflation and the consequent disruption of human society. (2) A nostalgia born of memories of my grandfather's farm where virtually everything but salt, pepper, coffee, tea, and spices was supplied from the farm and where the cellar, the attic and the fruit house were always groaning with food.

During the war years the self-sufficiency goal was a satisfactory and sound policy. In the years when butter, bacon, beef, lamb, poultry, honey, maple syrup, and many other things were either available only at fantastic black-market prices or not available at all, the four families at Malabar and all the countless visitors lived well and richly. In the case of another war or the disruption which might arise from political disorders, the self-sufficiency program would again be useful and economic and could be quickly re-established. But for periods of fairly normal peacetime existence we found that we could *not* at Malabar *afford* a program of 100 per cent self-sufficiency nor could we afford a program of highly diversified farming on the plan of my grandfather's "General Farm."

My own miscalculations regarding the goal arose from the fact that in the beginning I was not thinking of the intricate, co-related world in which we live today, but of the world as it existed in my grandfather's time and even into my early youth. It was a world in which there were few fast trains, no automobiles, no telephones and no radio and little means of communication, a world in which neither time nor labor were expensive, where there was no electricity

and the principal use of gasoline was for the patent lamp in the parlor. It was a world born of the frontier or prairie and forest, a pattern of life which grew up of necessity in America as it grew up in South America and Australia and South Africa and wherever families had to lead the lonely life of the frontier. It was a pattern of farm life which, save in remote areas, has not existed in Europe for generations and even centuries. The pattern became known as the "general farm," and throughout the horse-and-buggy days on comparatively new, still fertile soil, it prospered. It built many fine barns and farm houses and piled up small fortunes upon which farmers could retire and "live in town."

The pattern of the general farm has, I think, outlived its usefulness and its economic justification and to a certain extent so has the pattern of self-sufficiency. The successful farmer of the future in the United States will be, as he has long been in Europe, not a frontier farmer living in a little world of his own with a few cows, a few hogs, a few chickens, ten acres of corn, ten acres of oats, ten of hay and ten of wheat with a little primitive, unintended pasture land on the side, but a businessman, a specialist and something of a scientist. I suspect that the old-fashioned, frontier-pattern general farm has already become obsolete and that in the future save for a few farmers who stubbornly prefer that pattern and are willing to sacrifice profits to hard work and low income, the general farm will cease to exist within a generation or two. It is not a prospect which I, personally, regard with any

pleasure but my own preferences or those of anyone else are of small importance where the pressures of economic law in the industrial era are concerned.

I hasten at this point to add that by the passing of the *general farm* I do not mean the passing of the family-sized farm. Size has nothing to do with it. It is a question of program and of land use. I know some families who on fifty acres or less make far more money every year than other families who operate ten to twenty times the acreage. *Reviewers please note* and do not accuse me of predicting the passing of the family-sized farm or of speaking of it with derogation. The family-sized farm is still, and I hope will remain, a bulwark to our agriculture, our economy, and our democratic ideals. I mean simply that it cannot survive on the old overdiversified pattern of the frontier general farm.

The obsolescence of the pattern is one part of the enormous revolution in agriculture which has taken place almost unnoticed and which is still taking place. Many things have contributed to it—mechanization, better and quicker distribution, specialization (within reason), efficiency, health regulations, increasing markets and populations, rapid means of communication, rural electrification and the immense advances in agricultural discoveries and knowledge made during the past generation. All these things and many more have, I think, made the old-fashioned, overdiversified farm as obsolete as the wooden plow. And it has, generally speaking, reduced the general farmer not only to a standard of living

far below the level of that of his more advanced, specialized, mechanized brothers but has made him a burden to the taxpayers of the nation. It is my guess that if an analysis could be made of those farmers who need subsidies, parity supports, bribes, etc., 80 per cent (excluding the blighted cotton areas) would fall in the category of general farmers who work upon a plan so over-diversified that they can afford little mechanization and all of whose efforts and energies become in turn so diversified and so splintered that they can at best achieve only a maximum of hard work and a minimum of profit.

If I had not observed these things at Malabar and among neighboring farmers they would have been forced upon my attention during agricultural trips which I make each year into some forty states. To be sure, Malabar is not in the pattern of the general farm or even the family-sized farm. It is a farm of about 1,000 acres, including 140 acres of woodlot, co-operatively run and making a much better than average living under modern conditions for five families. It is made up of five farms, four owned and one rented, which had been originally operated on the old general farm plan. Despite the differences many of the things which we discovered through our own operations nevertheless apply to all farms and nearly all of them apply to all big farms.

In our own case we have moved gradually but surely away from the original pattern of the general farm on an expanded scale toward a program of specialization. We set out on the original

640 acres with a pattern which included dairy and beef cattle, sheep, hogs and chickens and a field program which included corn, wheat, oats, hay, soybeans, pasture and an orchard of some 200 trees. Bit by bit we discovered that if we stuck to such a program and were efficiently and self-sufficiently mechanized, we should have too big investment in machinery and that we did not have enough acreage or production in hay to support a baler, enough acreage in corn to support a corn-picker or enough acreage in small grain to support a combine. To justify this mechanization as well as the investment in other incidental mechanization one of three courses was necessary: (1) to acquire more land; (2) to raise production per acre to such a point that the yields justified the investment in machinery; or (3) to do custom work in order to augment the cash income to a point where it justified the mechanical equipment.

We could not raise production per acre over night and if one or two of us went out on the machines doing custom work it meant that we were taking time away from the urgent needs of a farm where not only were the normal operations in progress but also an intensive program of rehabilitation. The first choice was taken and we acquired by purchase and lease 350 more acres. Even with the additional acreage, however, the high degree of mechanization was still not justified in the economic sense because the production per acre on the eroded, depleted farms was so low—not higher in total production possibly than the production of an average, well-

managed 200-acre farm. In other words, such a 200-acre farm on a highly diversified program could no more really afford such a degree of mechanization than we could on our 1,000 acres. (Eventually the rapid gains in production per acre did justify the purchase and maintenance of some of our machinery.)

Then gradually we began to discover that we could not afford to operate the 200-tree apple orchard. If we operated it with any degree of efficiency, the investment meant mulching and mowing, five or six sprays, picking, sorting, and packing the apples. Two hundred trees did not justify the investment in spraying apparatus and if we hired the spraying done the cost had to be added to the cost of other operations and even a bumper crop could be produced and marketed only at a loss. Added to this we should have had to take time off away from the other important and profitable operations. The point was that we could not afford to operate the orchard. If we had had 5,000 apple trees we could have made money, but with only 200 trees we were neither in nor out of the apple business so the orchard was abandoned or leased out to neighbors who quickly found themselves in the same situation and quit their leases after one year.

One story concerning potatoes parallels that of the orchard. For three or four years under our self-sufficiency program we grew a supply of potatoes sufficient for all of us with a little over. "All of us" means about an average of forty people the year round. The small

acreage involved did not merit elaborate planting, spraying, digging machinery, so beyond the plowing and fitting much of this work was done by hand and therefore, together with plowing, fitting and cultivating, consumed considerable valuable man-hours which might profitably have been employed elsewhere. Because we always had to steal time from other more important tasks to take care of the potatoes, they were neglected and both the yield and the quality were poor.

It was only after three or four years that the light struck us. We could go down the road to a neighbor whose business is potato growing on a scale of thousands of bushels and buy all the potatoes we wanted far more cheaply than we were raising them in terms of seed, labor, and fertilizer, and they were much better potatoes. He in turn came to us for meat and dairy products because that was our business and we produced them much more cheaply and efficiently than he could on his own place.

In a tiny way, the potato story illustrates one economic phase of a changed world. It has been true also that at times we could buy peas or string beans cheaper than we could raise them. We have not done so because we prefer the freshness and better flavor of the vegetables grown in our own communal garden. We have also used that garden as an experimental plot and we find pleasure in raising good vegetables, but all of these elements are outside the realm of pure economics and of course a world controlled by pure economics, de-

void of luxuries and pleasures of the spirit, would be a poor and dreary world indeed.

Next we found that save for a couple of years with occasional high prices we could not afford to operate the laying houses with only 1,400 pullets, no matter what records they made. Each year the hen house showed a profit, but if we charged up labor and the time taken away from the operations more vital, the profits largely vanished. Again it was the same story. We were neither *in* nor *out* of the egg business. If we had had 5 thousand or 25 thousand pullets we could have operated efficiently and even made large profits but none of us liked chickens well enough to sacrifice all other operations to them. The same story held true of heavy chickens, especially when OPA ceilings made it impossible to produce them at 28 cents a pound even when fed cafeteria system on our own grain. So the flock was reduced to enough merely to supply eggs and poultry for the farm with an occasional small surplus for sale purposes. The expense in labor and feed and time were all slight and justified, especially during the war years when eggs and poultry prices not only were high but when both were for a large part of the time either in the black market or altogether unavailable.

And so, once the usefulness of the sheep as consumers of poor pasture came to an end, the sheep went the way of the orchards and the poultry. We were neither in nor out of the sheep business and could not afford them. (They were fine-wool Dorset cross-

breeds.) Registered sheep of high individual value might have been a different story but ordinary sheep are a low profit per head and it requires a great many to show any substantial profit.

Hog-raising soon went the way of the sheep, the poultry and the orchard, for we quickly found it much cheaper to buy weanling pigs to run after the cattle in the feeding barns, than to keep an array of sows the year round with all the labor, housing and feeding costs involved. In any case, our hill country is naturally grass country and not hog and corn country.

Gradually as the fertility of the fields mounted, we found ourselves moving deeper and deeper under the pressure of common sense and economics into streamlined, efficient, specialty farming and a program based upon small grains and grasses. We moved toward a pattern which today is firmly and permanently established. We have become a factory for grass in all its forms—hay, grass silage, and pasture. Our livestock has become incidental to the main specialty. They are merely the factory which processes the raw material we produce in the form of grass. The factory in the livestock barns processes it into milk, cheese, veal, baby beef and dairy heifers which we ship to the eastern markets. Within another year or two we shall probably grow no corn at all, put the remaining corn land into grass, buy what corn we need, and make money by doing so. We still raise oats and wheat because both give us at present a high-priced cash crop while we are reseeding meadows and because we consume a

considerable amount of oats in our program. We are going up hill all the time, concentrating all our efforts upon a definite, streamlined program of grass and cattle, building our fertility instead of tearing it down and making more money per acre than any general farmer can make and more than most corn and hog farmers are making. (The reasons are set forth in the chapter "Grass, The Great Healer.")

We know where we are going, what we are doing and what to expect in returns from year to year. Bad weather, not even drought (in our country), nor rains, nor frosts, affect seriously our grasslands production. The books are simple and easy to keep and the turnover is constant and stable. Not only is our income much higher than we should have off a general farm with a little of this and a little of that but we have done away with headaches which go with overdiversified farming. We can operate with our hay baler (for hay, straw, and making silage) one combine, two mowers, two side delivery rakes, four tractors and the usual fitting tools on something over a thousand acres. Four men do the work with the aid of the boys who bale and fill silos in summer. Working upon our original general-farm plan we should need at least two or three more men. We also have the satisfaction of doing one or two jobs well instead of doing a dozen indifferently.

The truth is, of course, that the general farm cannot afford a high degree of mechanization because its gross income is not so high as that of the specialized farm doing one or two or three things

expertly, efficiently, and well. The higher income of the specialist provides an economic base for still greater mechanized efficiency per acre and per man-hour, reduces drudgery to nil and permits still higher gross production and profits. Without mechanization it is difficult for the general farm to compete on even terms with the wheat specialist or the corn and hog specialist or the grass farmer or the big and efficient poultry operator or the orchardist with from five thousand trees upward or the 100-cow dairy.

Actually the old-fashioned general farmer is attempting to compete with all of these. While he may receive the same prices for his produce in the open market, he is paying the difference between his production costs and those of the efficient specialist in terms of money, hard work, a low living standard, and all too often, the ruin of his soil because he cannot afford to buy the fertilizer and the equipment to do a good job in apples, in poultry, in hogs, in cattle, in hay, corn, wheat, oats, etc., all at one time, in all of which field he is attempting to compete. Labor is expensive in these times, whether it is paid for in cash or in terms of long hours and hard work by the farmer and his family.

I think the problem and its answer were expressed partially at least in a conversation which took place at Malabar between one of the men and a visiting friend. The conversation ran something like this:

Friend: "John, would you ever go back to general farming on your own?"

John: "No."

Friend: "Why? Weren't you doing all right?"

John: "Yes, much better than average, but probably in spending money not as well as here. And cash isn't the only answer."

Friend: "What do you mean by that?"

John: "I mean that when I was general farming on my own, I worked from six in the morning to ten at night. I had to harvest my crops the old-fashioned way, shocking the grain, picking the corn by hand and handling small grain two or three times before it came out the right end of an old-fashioned threshing machine. The only alternative was having the work custom done and almost never was I able to get the combine, the picker or the baler at exactly the right time. Nearly always I lost at one end or the other. And more than that, my wife often had to help me in a pinch and I don't like my wife driving a tractor or working in the field. Now she never sets foot outside her house to work excepting in the flower garden or to hang out the washing. I work from eight to six and not always that much and I'm better off."

The conversation brought out at least one aspect of the reasons for the passing of the general farm—the aspect of hard work. But it revealed too the fact that any farmer who does not own *all* the mechanical equipment necessary to his job is always at a disadvantage no matter how much custom machinery there is available. Crops in a given region usually ripen at about the same time and that time, perhaps even on a single given day, is the moment when every farmer in the neighborhood wants the combine or the hay-baler. A week early or a week late may cause a loss not only of feed values but of actual dollars and cents.

The average pioneer family was a

family of many children among whom sons were especially desirable, and the work done by the children at various steps of their existence was regarded as *free* work. Very often the children of a pioneer family, as they grew to manhood or womanhood, had little choice but to marry and set up farms within the limited community in which they were born. Today the pattern has greatly altered. The average farm family in prosperous agricultural America produces but three children and the work which they contribute can no longer be regarded as *free* work, since there are, in our highly complex civilization, great opportunities for them to earn good money. A hundred careers are open to the youngster of today when even fifty years ago, the local area at least offered very limited choices beyond the field of agriculture. Today agriculture must be attractive to young people not only as a way of living but it must open prospects of a life free from drudgery as well as economic rewards comparable to those of other crafts, trades, and professions. It is unlikely that the family-sized general farm can offer these prospects. It can offer neither a large gross income, nor freedom from drudgery, nor much prospect of a progress toward a higher standard of living.

None of this is meant as an argument against the existence of the family-sized farm, but only against that of the general farm. As I pointed out above, the size of agricultural income and profits are not determined by the amount of acreage. Many other elements enter into the picture—tax and land values, mar-

kets, specialized, efficiently-run operations, mechanization and many other things, which might perhaps be summed up as proper farm progress and proper land use.

At Malabar I get countless letters a year asking, "How much should we make per acre?" This is a question which is completely unanswerable because of all the elements listed above. Wheat farms on the low value, low-tax level of the great farms of the Southwest where the land is valuable *only* as wheat or grazing land, can make money most years on yields of wheat as low as ten bushels to the acre. The same yields upon the rich, well-watered valuable lands of the corn-belt country would be wholly ruinous.

I have one friend who on thirteen acres grossed in the year 1946 a total of \$144,000 of which the greater part represented net profit. He was, however, a specialist, growing hothouse vegetables and truck produce. It is obvious that such profits can well support a high investment in machinery which in turn creates greater efficiency and lower costs of production.

I have another friend, operating a 160-acre farm of land reclaimed from the abandoned tax-delinquent level. Last year on the 160 acres he grossed \$33,000 with a probable net of about \$27,000. If he had been operating the same acreage as a general farm his gross income, even at the inflated prices of 1946, could not have been much more than seven or eight thousand dollars with a net of "spending money" amounting to about \$1,000 to \$1,500. He

operates, however, as a specialist in fruit and hybrid seed corn. He operates with a high degree of efficiency in these two fields, with the most modern equipment and machinery which such a large income makes possible. He has a definite program with no labor peaks and no sitting idly about the stove in winter. His work day is short and his work easy. I know many farms of much larger acreage operated as general farms which do not have a fifth the net income of this efficient specialized unit.

In the picture of modern agriculture—the New Agriculture—in a complex, highly intricate and integrated national economy, the question of proper land use plays an important role, not only the proper land use of the individual farm, but of the county, the state and the nation. On a farm it means simply using the land according to the best, most profitable and often obvious use. We have tried to follow a proper land-use pattern. It has turned out profitably and seems to be justified both in production and in the great increase in capital value, based upon the Federal Land Bank appraisal of production per acre. Roughly the plan works out thus:

(1) We are in hill country with little or no level land. The soil is light but mineral rich. It is not land suited to corn but when properly handled grows the finest hay, grass silage, and pasture in the world. Many farms in our region were completely ruined in the past by trying to raise corn and hogs on hills. (2) The first step in achieving proper use of the land was doing away with the old, square fields and establishing an

agriculture upon the contour *around* the hills rather than up and down them. It involved as well the establishment of wide strips kept in sod-meadow. Much steep land was put permanently into meadow and pasture. All these measures were designed to retain all rainfall and prevent soil erosion. (3) One hundred and forty acres of rough and rocky ground, not even suitable to permanent pasture and already in timber, was put into efficient wood-lot management with all cattle fenced out and the seedlings allowed to grow into valuable timber. (4) A considerable acreage of steep land and low-lying land was put into permanent bluegrass pasture, limed, fertilized, clipped, and treated as a valuable crop with a high-carrying capacity of livestock. (5) A large acreage of less steep land was put into strip cropping given over to a rotation of hay, silage, and pasture production alternated with wheat and oats. (6) The fairly level land was worked intensively in a corn, oats, sweet clover rotation. (7) Gradually the corn acreage has been reduced and the whole area has become, outside the woodlots and permanent bluegrass pastures, a grass, small grain farm with the prospect of corn being eliminated altogether, putting the intensively farmed oats, corn, sweet clover area into grass and buying what corn we need from the flat prairie lands to the west of us where corn is a specialty. The flat-land Iowa farmer can produce corn more efficiently and more cheaply than we can, while we have the advantage over him in grass, hay silage, and pasture production so long as we do a good job of it.

The pattern of proper land use in the rich prairie country would bear little resemblance to our own. We are in grass and dairy country. That country is natural corn, hog and beef-feeding country. The great plains farmer needs another pattern of land use and the farmer in the Deep South, with its special problems, still another. The average, over-diversified general farm with a conventional four-year rotation is attempting to practice and compete with all these areas—and often many more.

We have moved steadily toward the pattern of the New Agriculture, toward efficiency and concentration of purpose and effort and direction. Our fields are mostly big fields, their size and shape determined largely by the contours of the land and the exigencies of danger from erosion and by the flexibility of use which electric fencing has brought to such agriculture. Although the program of grass-small grain farming has virtually eliminated the dangers of soil and rainfall loss by erosion, we still maintain many of the long strips laid out originally because they are very practical and easy to farm. Some of them run nearly a mile in length following contours and always on the level. For plowing, fitting, and harvesting, these long strips have great advantages with none of the frequent turnings, stops and diagonal dead furrows which come with the old square-field farming.

The pattern of our specialized, grass program was determined by soil, climate, topography, markets, labor costs, proper land use and many other factors inherent in the principles of a new agri-

culture under which the successful farmer must be, I think, part businessman who invests a dollar to make five dollars, part scientist who does not merely accept what the Department of Agriculture or the County Agent tells him to do but knows *why* the practice is good and how and why it works, and the specialist who concentrates on doing two or three jobs efficiently and well rather than a dozen or fifteen indifferently.

During the century or more in which our agriculture, depending always upon new and virgin soils in apparently limitless quantities, has been slipping backward and in the Middle West was often confined rigidly to the old pioneer, general-farm pattern, American industry has produced more telephones, more automobiles, more plumbing, more radios and more of everything at a lower cost than the industry of all the rest of the world put together. At the same time American industry has paid wages to its workers from 30 to 90 per cent higher than paid to industrial workers in any other country in the world. This great feat of abundance, of high wages and low prices, has been achieved through efficiency, through specialization, through assembly lines, mass production and high production per man-hour, per unit and per invested dollar.

The record of our agriculture until very recently has been moving in exactly the opposite direction of a declining yield per acre and per man-hour, and food costs which have been rising steadily since the Civil War. An efficient

agriculture, specialized, mechanized, with proper land use and respect for the soil could produce much of the same result in the field of food and fiber as industry has achieved in the field of industrial commodities. A good agriculture—the New Agriculture—could produce at the same time higher profits and rewards for its workers while lowering the costs of food. If we had an agriculture universally as good as that practiced by 10 per cent of our really efficient farmers it is probable that on a basis of increased production per man-hour and per acre the cost of food could be lowered as much as 30 per cent while the profits of the farmer increased by as much as 20 per cent, regardless of inflations or deflations. No such thing can come about so long as proper land use is ignored and so much of our agriculture still remains in the old pattern of the pioneer general farm.

Too many of our farmers, by far the great proportion, have fallen into the evil habit of expecting high prices rather than efficient and abundant production per acre and per man-hour to bring them prosperity, economic stability, or even a bare living. They have been content with waning production per acre. "What was good enough for grand-pappy was good enough for me," failing to realize that increased production and efficiency mean lowered costs per unit and per man-hour and increased profits and solid incomes.

Considering the inflated prices of the war and immediate postwar years, every farmer should have made a small fortune, but this was not so. Many of them paid off mortgages and put some re-

serves in the bank. Government statistics showed a vast increase in gross farm income but like all statistics, which are not analyzed and qualified, these give a false picture. The net profits to the farmer represented only a fraction of the gross income just as the wages or salaries of other elements of our society do not in themselves represent net profits. The great discrepancy between gross and net agricultural income arose from a number of causes—rising prices of seed, fertilizer, labor, machinery and material costs when these things were available, but largely the increased costs of production lay in the widespread acreages of low yields and the plowing up of non-agricultural and essentially unproductive ground to raise emergency crops at high-price levels. Of course the biggest cost of the farmer could not be measured in dollars and cents; it lay in the drudgery and the long hours for which he received, unlike the industrial workers, neither overtime nor adequate or corresponding recompense in prices. In many senses the American farmer and his wife and particularly the good, productive farmer, next to the men and women on active duty, were the real heroes of the war.

In all of this picture the profits of the good farmer were notably higher than those of the mediocre or poor farmer on a corresponding acreage. This was so because he produced a much bigger gross and because that gross, owing to high yields per acre, cost him per ear of corn or quart of milk or dozen eggs, much less to produce in terms of actual labor and of money costs.

The relation between production and costs and profits, judging from our own practical experience can scarcely be overestimated. It shows up in farm operations, in a hundred small ways. It is quite clear, as was pointed out earlier, that in the case of two farms, side by side, on the same type of soil, the farmer producing a hundred bushels of corn per acre can produce an ear of corn or a bushel of corn approximately five times as cheaply on the same basis of taxes, interest, seed, and labor as the farmer raising twenty bushels to the acre.

The same holds true of pasture and grazing land. Our best permanent pasture, when we took over three of the farms, could at best carry about one cow or steer for every ten or twelve acres for a part of the summer. Today, while the base of taxes and interest has varied little, we are able to carry 1½ head per acre, and in seasons of good rainfall at times as many as two head to the acre throughout the summer. On the pastures that were originally almost non-productive and needed ten or twelve acres to feed one cow or steer inadequately, we have raised production as much as ten to twelve times on the original base of capital and tax cost. Such a record speaks for itself in terms of pure economics.

One of the common errors, particularly of the old-fashioned general farmer, is the conviction that his money is made in the barn by his livestock because that is where the monthly milk or egg check comes from or the sausage money at butchering time. It is an easy error to fall into, but it is a serious

error. The farmer makes his money in the fields, out of his soil and its yield per acre; the livestock, in whatever form, are merely machines which process the yields of the field. If these yields are small, the cost of the production shows up in the general picture, and it costs the farmer more to produce his eggs, meat, or milk. The barn profits are in direct ratio to the degree of yields in his fields. Inevitably these things go back to the soil, the productivity of the soil and the efficiency in working that soil and increasing its yields per acre while maintaining or even increasing its fertility. In other words it costs the farmer with yields of one ton per acre of hay approximately three times as much to produce a quart of milk as it does the farmer producing three to three and a half tons per acre of hay. Efficiency and intelligent feeding programs can lower production costs and increase profits in the barns and hen houses but the final determination of costs is based always upon the soil and its productivity per acre, whether it concerns the man who raises his own feed or whether it is the man who is forced to buy feed grown five hundred or a thousand miles away.

I am aware that the above arguments have raised a number of questions, principally the question of surpluses. If we had an agriculture comparable in production to that of the top European agricultural nations what could we do with the surpluses?

As I wrote to my friend, the sergeant in Okinawa, I think the answer to that one is easy enough—simply that for centuries there have never been any sur-

pluses of food in the world and very rarely have there been real surpluses of food in this country since its beginning. There can be no surpluses of food in a world where half the population suffers in times of peace from severe malnutrition and where at least 500 million people are born and die without ever having had enough to eat one day of their lives. There are no surpluses, particularly of high protein foods, in a nation such as this one where in normal times, 40 per cent of the population suffers for one reason or another from malnutrition. There are no surpluses of food; there is only abominable distribution and prices which are so high, especially in the realm of high protein foods, that great numbers of the population find them beyond their means and other great numbers find their consumption of such foods gravely limited by the contents of their pocketbooks.

High prices limit consumption severely and create surpluses, especially in the realm of quality and highly nutritious foods.

The war and the necessity for feeding a considerable part of the world in the immediate postwar years have proved quickly that in the world, even with the bumper crops produced in America, there was a great shortage rather than a surplus of food. The desperate need of immediate neighbors in Europe gave rise to an emergency distribution which quickly disproved the theory of surpluses. Even if Europe immediately regained the power of feeding itself according to former standards there would still be a shortage of food, espe-

cially of good food, throughout the world. If the war and postwar means of distribution were maintained, the United States, producing twice or more its record production, would still fail to produce enough food to meet the demands of world nutrition even on a low-grade diet of cereals.

Within the country distribution is almost as inefficient as upon a world scale. High prices, high protein foods such as meat, eggs, butter, milk, etc., are drawn irresistibly to the areas of concentrated populations and the higher-income levels because the prices of these things are high. Other factors raise the retail prices of all of them—such factors as the high overhead in taxes, land values, etc., in our monstrous overgrown cities, the virtually unregulated activities of the commission merchant who is often able to rig prices, holding them down to the producer, raising them to the consumer and sometimes causing a spread of as much as 75 per cent and more between the price paid the producer and the price paid by the consumer. There are endless and often unnecessary costs of refrigeration, transportation, etc., of which the notable example lies in those small towns within a radius of 200 miles of a great city—small towns which pay the big city commission merchant a cut, and pay shipping costs *into* the great city markets and *out* again on food grown originally at their very borders. All these things represent the minor idiocies of an economic civilization which considers itself mature, but again, while serious, they represent only a part of the picture. The fundamental

is the high cost of food *production* which is inevitable under a poor or mediocre agriculture.

When agricultural prices decline sharply all farmers suffer curtailment of income but the productive, efficient farmer remains solvent and even perhaps modestly prosperous because the cost of his production is so much lower than that of the poor mediocre farmer that he is still able to produce a profit margin. His gross income declines much less than the income of the unproductive farmer on the same acreage. The truth, of course, is that efficient production and reasonable and profitable prices and not scarcity and high prices is the answer to high standards of living, for the farmer as well as other elements of society.

Some readers might ask, "Supposing we produce twice as much food and agricultural products on half as much land, what would we do with the land that remained?"

At least a fourth or more of the agricultural land now under cultivation is not, properly speaking, agricultural land at all. It is not profitable to work and to make it so would cost far too great an expenditure of money. It may be too sandy, or too wet, or too dry, or it may be unsuitable and unprofitable for a dozen other reasons. Some thousands of American families today live upon such land where they lead lives not far removed from those of Chinese peasants at a level below that of the Central European peasant. The poor diet and the deficiencies of the soil itself handicap the health, vigor, and intelligence of these people. All of the same land could, under a universal system of

proper land use, be put to forest and pasture production. Much of it would make excellent grazing country, and changed either to grazing or managed forestry would provide for the people living on that land a better source of employment and a higher standard of living than they now possess.

It is an illusion, I believe, that a better, more efficient agriculture displaces agricultural workers and lowers the level of agricultural employment. A better agriculture of higher production actually opens new prospects for more profitable employment, especially in the field of processing carried on as a part of the farm program, for example, the production of cheese, butter, hams, sausage and a wide variety of other products which can be produced and sold locally or nationally from the farm itself. Only in vast single-crop areas, such as those devoted to cotton and wheat, does the element of mechanization as an element of efficiency, greatly reduce employment.

In our own experience, a better, more productive farm employs *more* people than the same land ever supported before—even in the days of big families—and at a much higher standard of living, one which includes plumbing, electricity, natural gas and the disappearance of all drudgery once associated with farm life both for the farmer and the farmer's wife. The truth is, of course, that no individual or no nation ever profited by poor, limited, and costly production of commodities of any kind.

Still another reader may ask, "But what became of the old sacred formula of crop rotation?"

I think that most modern agricultural authorities would agree that the long-established "three- or four-year rotation of crops" is not a necessity on any good and productive farm. The rotation was originally worked out for the old-fashioned general farm to prevent the descendants of the traditional pioneer farmer from working out their land completely by constant use of fields in openly cultivated row crops. In the traditional rotation, grass and green and barnyard manures were the backbone, as indeed they must be in any good farm program, specialized or otherwise, but in the conventional rotation of corn, oats or wheat, grass is neither an infallible nor a necessary procedure. Lime, green manures, and humus are the key to any well-managed agricultural enterprise. Barnyard manure is the best of all sources of fertilizer and humus but it cannot be produced in sufficient quantity to *maintain* the fertility of even a small farm and other means of maintaining and increasing the humus content of the soil have to be found.

The potato-growing specialist knows that he must turn back each year a certain amount of organic material along with commercial fertilizer or his yields will fall off and his plants become more and more subject to disease. The cotton and tobacco grower knows or should know this although, to the ruin of hundreds of thousands of acres of good soil, he does not always practice it. The single-crop wheat grower, except in the

wheat specialty areas, has learned it the hard way. The successful potato specialist plows under each year a crop of green manure, usually rye. The good cotton and tobacco farmer alternates his crops with winter-growing legumes. The good wheat farmer in areas where there is too little rainfall to grow much but wheat has long since abandoned the use of the moldboard plow in favor of trash farming and has ceased to burn his straw.

In the whole of this picture there is probably little place for the old-fashioned general farm. The family-sized farm can certainly survive and upon a much more prosperous basis than in the past, but it must be upon a program which undertakes a definite project or a limited number of projects and carries them through efficiently and expertly.

The general, widely diversified, and self-sufficient program is, however, admirably suited to the small-scale enterprise of industrial, white-collar and middle-bracket-income citizens with a few acres in the suburbs or in the country itself. This category of small, largely self-sufficient holdings is increasing constantly in numbers and it provides not only a bulwark of security for the individual but a source of strength for the nation as well. A well-managed small place with vegetables, fruit trees, chickens, perhaps a pig or two and a cow provides not only a source of large saving in the family food budget, but it also is a source of health, recreation, outdoor life, and general contentment for the whole family.¹

There is a revolution under way in

¹ *The Have-More Plan*, a booklet available from the author, Ed. Robinson of Noroton, Conn., sets forth the immense advantages of operating small family holdings.

American agriculture. It is a revolution of many facets, including soil conservation and better land use, of greater mechanization and greater efficiency, and also a growing understanding of what soil is as a source of production, prosperity, vigor, and health in plants, animals, and people. But there are as well economic pressures at work which are more powerful perhaps than the influence of education, and they are hostile to the old-fashioned pioneer pattern of general farming which is likely to impose low income, drudgery, inefficiency, and a lack of expertness.

The youngsters and the younger farmers are beginning to understand the operation of these pressures and it is likely that within another generation or two, the general farm, raising a little of this and a little of that, will have passed pretty well out of the picture and we shall begin to have an efficient and really abundant agriculture in which the farmer will be a combination of specialist, scientist, and businessman. We

shall have better and more abundant food and agricultural commodities for industrial use at lower prices and higher profits for the good farmer.

It is also probable that in the meanwhile the city-dwelling housewife will weary of paying high prices caused by inefficient production and low yields per acre and the taxpayer will resist paying hundreds of millions a year for bribes, government-buying to support prices, price floors, subsidies, parity prices and other dodges to maintain in a mummified state a poor and unproductive agriculture and to pension the farmer who is not doing his job as well or as intelligently as he could. It is not a question of more and harder work. The better, the more productive and well-planned the farm, the less is the drudgery. It is much more a question of information, intelligence, and expertness. All of these things add up to abundance, to lower prices for food to the city dweller, and higher profits and a more solid economic base for the farmer.

Progress, by its very name, indicates a direction; and the moment we are in the least doubtful about the direction, we become in the same degree doubtful about the progress.—G. K. CHESTERTON

Accidents—A Threat to Democracy!

NED H. DEARBORN

I

THERE was a knock on the door.

The professor looked up, took off his reading glasses, and said, "Come in."

It was the exchange student from Mars.

"Oh, professor," he began. "I am so glad I found you in. I need help to understand this."

With that, the exchange student spread the newspaper in front of the professor and pointed to a story from the National Safety Council. The story dealt with the 1948 accident toll in America and the following figures stood boldly forth:

Killed—98,000

Injured—10,300,000

The cost—\$7,200,000,000

"Professor, why were these people killed? Were they bad?"

"No."

"Then, were they ill? Incurably ill?"

"No."

"In this society, do you kill off your old people when they can no longer make a contribution to society?"

"No, no," said the professor. "Accidents kill people of all ages."

"These 98,000! Were they unhappy? Were they suicides? Failures?"

"Oh, no."

As the professor pondered how to explain accidents to the exchange student, the latter stood nervously fingering a

pile of term papers waiting to be graded. The titles bore a remarkable similarity—"Education for Democracy," "Education in a Democracy," "Education contributes to Democracy," "Education, the Hope of Democracy." A great light broke over the exchange student's face.

"I know. These people," he said, putting his finger on the 98,000 killed numeral, "constituted a threat to your precious democracy. Is that not it?"

The professor sighed and turned to his term papers, adjusting his spectacles on his nose. "Go find Mrs. Professor and ask her to give you a cup of cocoa," he said.

These foreign students! I wonder if it isn't a mistake to bring them here. Threat to democracy, indeed! Poor, kindly old Mrs. Jones. Why was she killed? Missed her step in a dimly lit hallway. And that senior last year—would have graduated *summa cum laude* had he not been drowned three days before graduation. And Billy Smith. My, what promise that boy had—intelligence, initiative, personality. And what was he doing when he was killed? Building a snow man in his own front yard. The driver of the car probably wasn't to blame, she skidded and Billy was fatally squeezed between the car and his home. Billy Smith—*threat* to democracy indeed! It is the Billy Smiths who are the *hope* of democracy and yet—the professor's eyes strayed again to the news story giving the age break-

down—we actually kill about 6,000 Billy and Jane Smiths (5 to 14 year-olds) annually.

How long will society let this slaughter go on? Threat to democracy? Well, perhaps the exchange student has something there—just mixed up on his antecedents. It is not the accident victim but the accidents which threaten democracy.

II

The professor was lucky that he was not asked to explain what we buy with \$7,200,000,000 yearly. Suffering, heart-aches, unemployment, lowered production. How long will the people of the United States go on putting up with accidents before someone says "There ought to be a law"? Laws which determine the number of lumens with which you must light your halls? Laws which prohibit the Billy Smiths of the nation from playing in their own front yards? Laws which forbid the joyful and healthful activity of swimming? Laws which, in effect, prohibit democracy?

Impossible! It can't happen here! So we all should have said 20 or even 10 years ago. But those of us who have watched the development of laws in dictator countries have seen good laws of unquestionable social value evolve into those of pseudo-social utility and finally to those definitely anti-social.

If we would protect ourselves from dictatorial laws, to control the accident problem, to what are we to turn? In a democracy there is but one obvious answer—education.

But where, you may well ask, is this tendency to dump everything on the

schools going to stop? Can the schools do everything? Are schools responsible for *all* social improvements?

To these questions there are two answers. First, the schools cannot do everything; cannot, as a matter of fact, even care for all education but they can, and in many places do, exert very real leadership in all education of the community. Second, there is much more the school can do, even within a conventional framework, to aid in the solution of the accident problem.

Safety education in the community school

Back in the days of the three R's, *Education* belonged in the hands of the schools. There was, it was thought, one best way of teaching reading, writing and arithmetic and the less the home interfered the better. The home took care of preparation for earning a living—milking, plowing, weaving, bread-making, harvesting, sharing—and the church took care of the formation of moral standards—honesty, truthfulness, love, charity, kindness. As society became more and more complicated, the schools gradually took over home and church responsibilities, and, for a time, it looked as though the school might replace both.

When the school shifted its attention from a pouring-in process to a growth process with the direction of growth being set by individual and social needs, the school came to see that, without the support of home, school and other community agencies the school could do little.

Where for example, does a child get his education in safety—be it good edu-

cation or poor? From the way his mother places the pans on the stove as she cooks, from the way his father keeps the basement stairs in repair, from the way his older brother or sister crosses the street, from the play areas which the community provides, from the attitude of the citizens toward traffic tickets; from the respect in which the fire chief is held in the community.

How far can the school get in teaching the child to ride his bicycle on the right side of the road in the same direction as motor traffic if the police department winks at juvenile violations of the law? How far can the school go in building an understanding of the need for expert engineering advice in the placing of traffic signals, if one of the civic groups allows itself to be used as a political force to secure a traffic signal for selfish ends? What good is an attempt to functionalize fire prevention education through a home check list if mother or father affixes a signature to the statement that the home has been inspected for fire hazards when it has not? To what end are the schools' efforts in teaching children how to select safe places to play, if the community provides no such opportunity for selection?

In educating for safe living, the school has a responsibility to call in all community educative forces to plan together what each can contribute in order best to teach young citizens how to assume a larger degree of responsibility for their own safety and that of their fellow citizens. Calling in these agencies is, however, an opportunity, as well as a responsibility, for the school because its

task will be immeasurably lightened as the citizens of the community and community agencies come to understand the school's objectives, to see how these objectives tie in with their own, and to co-operate in their achievement. Further, through the relatively concrete area of safety education, the community may be brought together to co-operate on objectives of citizenship and self-realization which are more nebulous than safety.

Safety education in the subject-centered curriculum

True it may be that only the more progressive schools in the more progressive communities can attack their education problems in this co-operative fashion. It is my firm belief that more schools could go further and secure better co-operation from their communities if they did strike out in a bold fashion for the good of all children. But let us assume for the purpose of the discussion that your school is in a tradition bound community where your responsibility is to provide the so-called fundamentals and those only. I will show you how you can do much to prepare your boys and girls for safe living without adding another second to the school day and without stirring from the confines of your own special compartment.

Do you teach social studies (perhaps, in your community it is called civics)? What are the laws and ordinances of the community that provide for safety? How are these laws passed and how may better ones be secured?—Pedestrian safety? Bicycle safety? Safety

as it relates to the automobile driver? Building codes? Safety in public transportation?—These all form concrete examples of the community and state as they operate to produce a safer community. They are more meaningful examples, perhaps, to the pupils than laws related to such areas as divorce, monopoly and regulation of trade, important as the latter may be.

Is science your field? Even the most academic discussion of fire can contain advice on how to control it. The coefficient of friction has to do with stopping distances and skids. Carbon monoxide poisoning will relate to chemistry. "Keep to the right"—that's the old law from the physics texts that two bodies cannot occupy the same space at the same time. As a matter of fact there is hardly a safety rule which cannot be explained by one of the principles of science.

Or if we turn to the newer fields that one, for example, which has successively been called domestic science, home economics and homemaking, how much home safety is an integral part of the instruction? In industrial arts or vocational education, safety, which is a legal MUST, can just as well be transferred to safety education. And let us look for a moment at driver training. What is that but a skill subject equivalent to the running of a lathe, a sander, a sewing machine or a typewriter. The only difference is that safety rates very high in importance in driving an automobile and very low in running a typewriter with its importance to the other skills falling somewhere between these two.

So it is with practically every area of the subject-centered curriculum. English and foreign languages probably are the only subjects with which safety cannot be directly integrated.

*Safety as it ties in with
democratic living*

More than a decade ago, Albert W. Whitney, the great philosopher of safety education, pointed out that safety was a phase of life about which even the very youngest children could do something in a democratic fashion, could, in other words, gain experience in democratic living through deciding how they could live together safely—the experiences of deciding together range from how shall we use our blocks, at the nursery school level, to how shall we act after our football team has won the championship, at the collegiate level.

Safety is certainly not the only area in which democracy can be practiced but in America, democracy must be practiced to achieve safety. To that degree to which we, in a democratic country, put the accident problem into the hands of our boys and girls for democratic solution, will our efforts be successful in life terms. Certainly we can achieve safety for our boys and girls by prohibition and control while under our jurisdiction in school. But only by giving them more and more responsibility will we be able to graduate citizens capable of *living in America*—and by living I mean staying alive.

At the 36th National Safety Congress and Exposition, Marion R. Trabue, dean of the school of education, Pennsylvania

State College and member of the National Commission on Safety Education of the National Education Association stated: "The time has passed when reading, writing and arithmetic could properly be referred to as the 'fundamentals of education.' The real fundamentals of education in this modern, highly-complex world are co-operative human relations." One learns co-operative human relations through having co-operative human relations. One of the ways of having such relations is through solving together each accident problem as it arises.

Does democracy work in safety at the national level?

As an old schoolmaster, I have always believed that only as I practiced could I be successful as a teacher. That is why I have been working for the past six years to set up all safety work on a truly co-operative basis.

That goal is now well on its way to success. In all fields of safety: industry, farm, home, traffic and transportation,

the same plan is developing. I chose my example from the school and college field as that is the one which will, I believe, be of most interest to you.

A School and College Conference has been set up. This conference is composed of representatives on the one hand, of agencies connected with safety as it impinges on boys and girls and, on the other, with representatives of the teaching profession. This conference has as its first chairman, John W. Studebaker, vice president of Scholastic Magazines. This conference has as its aim to discover safety instruction needs of boys and girls and find out how these needs can best be met. On the national level as on the local level, through co-operation we hope to meet the accident problem with the full impact of education, so that soon we shall not have to try to explain away our yearly accidental slaughter.

Then and only then can democracy hold up its head and say we attack our social problems co-operatively and, in doing so, we solve them.

To some generations much is given; of other generations much is expected. This generation of Americans has a rendezvous with destiny.—FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

Summer Day

(A Metrical Experiment)

RICHARD L. LOUGHLIN

Giddy greens laughing down the lanes,
Gloomy greens sulking in the shades,
Glancing greens tiptoe on the treetops,
Gleaming greens hiding in the hills;
 Lights and shadows everywhere,
 Clouds advancing passing-fair.
Crumpled clouds limping out of line,
Clumsy clouds stumbling over sunbeams,
Crowded clouds trampling on the star-trails,
Careless clouds heedless of the heat;
 Sun and sky bright and high,
 Sliding hills for clouds to try.
Haughty hills loving swelling lines,
Happy hills satisfied with sunship,
Heavy hills trying hard to tumble,
Humble hills hanging blessed heads;
 Down each one, shunning none,
 Glide huge clouds obscuring sun.
Satyr sun lip-to-lip with lakes,
Stealthy sun sneaking through the skies,
Setting sun tinting temporal things,
Smiling sun holding fast to heaven;
 Hills and sun have such fun,
 They're red-faced when day is done.
Dreaming day lifting eyelids languid,
Dazzling day squinting into streams,
Drowsy day taking naps in trees,
Dying day holding up its heart;
 "Day is dead," I nearly said:
 Sh! It's merely gone to bed!

Should Communists Teach in American Universities?

GEORGE E. AXTELLE

I BELONG to a labor union, The American Federation of Teachers, which has a provision in its constitution providing "that no applicant whose political actions are subject to totalitarian control such as Fascist, Nazi or Communist, shall be admitted to membership." This measure was adopted only after much soul searching and discussion, because we had learned from experience that Communists used the Federation as an instrument to the ends of the Party. They supported matters of common interest to teachers and to American education only when it served the interest of the party for them to do so. Whenever they were unable to use the Federation to those ends they were ready to destroy it. Other labor unions have had similar experience. I am persuaded by my experience in the American Federation of Teachers that whatever they cannot control and use to their ends they will destroy if they can.

I

Recently three professors have been dismissed from the faculty of the University of Washington, because of their membership in the Communist Party. The president of the university says that these men were not dismissed because of their philosophy, or because of their intellectual or teaching capacity, or for any other reason than their membership

in the Party. As members of the Party subject to its discipline they are unable to teach the truth. Their loyalty to The Party transcends and negates their loyalty to students, university, or the academic profession. Such men are ineligible to teach in institutions of higher learning dedicated to the disinterested pursuit and propagation of the truth.

I was recently asked to sign a protest in their behalf. I declined to do so because I was not yet clear in my own mind about the issues or what was good public and professional policy in cases of this kind. This paper is a preliminary attempt to clarify these issues and to determine in my mind what our policy should be in such cases. The case touches so to the very quick of American democracy that it is of the greatest importance that our profession be clear in our mind what should be done. As important, however, as what should be done, is why it should be done. This case should be decided on principle. Hence the reasons or grounds for our decision are of utmost importance. We must decide the case in such a way as to fortify and strengthen the democratic tradition, to serve as a secure and significant step in the development and growth of that tradition. Hence the clarification of the principles involved is of cardinal importance.

I now ask myself whether the de-

cision of the American Federation of Teachers is equally valid for institutions of higher learning. Can we afford to have men and women teaching young people whose first loyalty and discipline subordinates their teaching to external ends? In view of the central role of education in our democracy, would they not subvert the democratic process? But then, what of the principle of academic freedom for which the profession has fought so long and so bitterly? Would not the exclusion of communists from higher institutions breach that principle irreparably and subvert the democratic process even more? These are fundamental questions now confronting American educators. The principles upon which we ground our position are even more important than the position itself.

There is one central and over-towering fact in this situation. It is the fact that *the American People have determined to be their own rulers, to govern themselves.* They have decided that by taking counsel among themselves they can discover and promote their best interests in common, and that their best or highest interests are their common interests. This is no social contract theory or mythology. It is written into the very structure of our institutions.

From this fact and its implications would seem to flow every other consideration in this case. Our decision to rule ourselves is no guarantee that we can or will rule ourselves wisely. But it is our decision. It is no guarantee that we have the political capacity to rule ourselves. There is nothing to prevent us from deciding to relinquish this responsibility.

There is nothing to guarantee that some interest or movement taking advantage of the democratic processes themselves may not subvert them and supplant our self-government by some other kind. If anything of the sort should happen it would simply mean that we were unable to govern ourselves, that the responsibilities of self rulership were too great for us.

Whether we shall continue to rule ourselves depends entirely upon our own competence. It depends upon whether we have the intellectual discernment to identify our common interests, to promote and protect them. The question of devotion to these interests is largely a matter of whether we properly discern them. The advantages of self rule to a people clearly depend upon whether they can discern their common interests. The point of this is that self rule, or democracy is no absolute in itself. Democracy is a chimera until a people is competent to assume its responsibilities. It can survive only so long as a people posses this competence. If they lose interest in educating themselves for these responsibilities, or if institutional changes so complicate their life that they can no longer indentify their interests or see the issues, they will lose their democracy.

Democracy is not inevitable, nor is it absolute. However, the determination of a people to rule themselves carries with it certain implications which are inexorable and, we may even say, absolute. In the first place we see that such a determination implies intellectual and political competence. It implies further

the political and educational institutions and practices which assure this competence. It implies that if a people are to rule themselves they must develop the kinds of beliefs about man and culture, about reality and about values that give them confidence and power. For example, men can not long rule themselves if they have contempt for human nature, i.e., if they do not have confidence in their capacity to rule themselves. They cannot long rule themselves if they locate the ends of their common life elsewhere than within that life.

Men cannot long rule themselves if they insist upon an official, correct or orthodox doctrine. Men are of many minds, many ideas and many values. These must be mutually respected. An official or orthodox doctrine would subvert self-rule in two ways. It would, in the first place, exclude many ideas and values, many points of view from the full interplay of ideas, necessary for criticism and examination, for the development of our collective wisdom. In the second place, it would destroy the inclusive condition essential to general participation. In short, then the decision to rule ourselves implies a pluralistic and inclusive attitude toward ideas, values and points of view. There is an old saying that he who says "A" must say "B." Having decided to rule ourselves certain things follow. That is why in this case our decision to rule ourselves over-towers every other consideration. Our problem is the formation of principle and policy that will support and under-gird this determination of the American

people to rule themselves. Our fundamental concern is loyalty to the tap-root of our tradition and character.

Equal in importance to our decision to rule ourselves was the magnificent insight that *we can rule ourselves only if our minds are free, only if our communications are free and unrestricted among us*. We must have free and unrestricted access to ideas and information if we are to determine, promote and safeguard our public interest. The heavy responsibility of collectively determining public policy forbids us to tolerate any abridgement upon inquiry, teaching or discussion affecting that interest. This is the meaning of the First Amendment.

Not only does the responsibility of self-rule forbid abridgment of free inquiry, teaching and instruction; it implies the positive injunction to institutions involved in inquiry, teaching and discussion, to insure the widest possible interplay of ideas. The genius of our way of life lies not in correct doctrine, but rather in our faith in our collective wisdom, faith in the power of truth to take care of itself. But this faith implies the conditions of free intercourse, of free interplay of ideas.

Since we are of many minds and many ideas, each making its claim to truth, each must have a fair chance to state its case. It is not for officials public or private to judge which are wise or unwise, fair or unfair, safe or dangerous. Our collective wisdom must decide the merit, truth and value of ideas. The genius of democracy lies in its faith in reason, in intelligence, to discern the truth, and

faith that given the proper conditions we all share in that reason and intelligence.

II

From this it would seem to follow that *our highest public interest lies in the quality of mind we foster*. The welfare and prosperity of every other interest public or private, depends upon the quality of our collective judgment. *Our education of ourselves is therefore our chief concern*. Thus the continuous unremitting search for truth, teaching and discussion are at the heart of our way of life, without which it ceases to be. The greatest threat to public safety lies in the attempts of special interests, archaic institutions and ideas and timorous and short-sighted officials to curb and restrict this process.

The demand for free speech springs, not from the "natural" or private right of the speaker, but from the common and basic necessity of the public. It springs from the imperative need of the public for free access to ideas in order that it may develop and exercise its best wisdom. The whole issue here is confused if we identify the principle of free speech with individual rights. There is nothing in our decision to rule ourselves, for example, which insures unqualified rights to special or private interests. Private interests, whether in property or speech, must bow to public interest when public interest demands it. When, however, an idea or a point of view claims to express public interest, when it is oriented to public interest, it must be heard. It must have free play with other similar ideas, in order that

we may have the whole universe of such ideas to draw upon in determining our common interests and our public policy.

Public policy must be governed by the needs and conditions of education for democracy. Education for democracy must work for the continuous cultivation of independent critical judgment. The spirit of orthodoxy, intellectual passivity or conformity spells intellectual stagnation, sluggishness, torpor, the loss of independent judgment. Cultivation of critical judgment demands the free interplay of ideas and facts in which their full force and bearing may be discerned. It is particularly important that opposing considerations confront each other in discussion and thought. Intellectual and spiritual vitality demands a pluralistic attitude toward ideas and points of view. We can be confident that the merit and validity of ideas will not only stand the test of controversy but will be disclosed by it.

Institutions of higher learning therefore, must not be presumed to be repositories of truth but rather a market place of ideas where truth is constantly in the making. We may presume that some of the persuasive power of communism is derived from some measure of truth which it possesses. Why should men who rule themselves deny themselves access to that measure? We must rather appropriate truth wherever we find it. Half truths are dangerous. It is for that reason that they need systematic examination. We can neither test nor appropriate truths unless the ore from which we refine them is available. Truth itself demands the fullest and freest in-

terplay of ideas. It can then take care of itself. Our decision to rule ourselves carries with it a faith in our collective wisdom. We must therefore trust that wisdom and faith; providing the conditions for it to emerge. We must maintain the conditions for the continuous growth of independent critical judgment.

President Allen seems to agree up to this point, but he thinks that since members of the Communist Party are not free men and can teach only official doctrine, they cannot engage freely and honestly in controversy. Let us grant this position. Does this then mean that the party position should be excluded from expression and scrutiny by the university community? That is questionable. The important question here would seem to be whether the minds of the students and the rest of the faculty are free. A good case might be made for deliberately searching out and appointing communists as such to university faculties, providing they are otherwise intellectually and academically competent. The best inoculation against error, chicanery and distortion is experience with it in a free and critical atmosphere. *We must know the minds of our opponents.* The bitterest opponents of the Communist Party regularly read *The Daily Worker* in order to understand and anticipate them. The surest protection against "dangerous thoughts," and their surest test, is the market place of ideas. Thoughts become dangerous when driven underground, in an atmosphere of suppression, when spread in a situation from which other

ideas are excluded.

Much more might be said for closing Communist Party schools and employing their instructors in public institutions than for excluding their instructors from public institutions. A democracy might well consider the proposition of closing all schools which teach *any* brand of orthodoxy and bringing that orthodoxy into the open forum and the free play of ideas. The real danger in ideas whether political, economic, philosophical or religious lies in the way they are taught.

Any idea or point of view taught in an atmosphere from which other ideas are excluded is dangerous. Taught in an exclusive environment, isolated from opposing ideas, their import and force is lost. Taught and learned uncritically, they are held blindly, rigidly, unintelligently. Hence they are unable to enter into interplay with other ideas. When they meet opposition an emotional response of fear and hate may be evoked, because of lack of familiarity with other ideas, and because of lack of intellectual security. Most important, independent critical judgment is suppressed, and competence for self-rule destroyed. Democracy has no greater enemies than rigidity of belief, fanaticism and orthodoxy. Yet these are the products of exclusive instruction. Herein lies the real danger of ideas.

III

From time to time, authorities have felt that public safety demanded the suppression of ideas. The crucifixion of Christ and the persecution of Christians

were intended to uproot a doctrine considered dangerous to the state. All of the powers and terrible threats of the inquisition were helpless against the rise of heresy and the birth of science. Indeed, in those countries where it most succeeded, for example, Spain and Latin America, it did so at the expense of cultural vitality. The effort of George III to stamp out republican ideas but fed fuel to the flame. Certainly the repressions of France and Russia were fruitless in checking their revolutions. Our own experience with sedition laws has been far from promising.

Zacharia Chaffee says, "tens of thousands among those 'forward-looking men and women' to whom President Wilson had appealed in earlier years were bewildered and depressed and silenced by the negation of freedom in the twenty-year sentences requested by his legal subordinates from complacent judges. So we had plenty of patriotism and very little criticism, except of the slowness of ammunition production. Wrong courses were followed like the dispatch of troops to Archangel in 1918, which fatally alienated Russia from Wilson's aims for a peaceful Europe. Harmful facts like the secret treaties were concealed while they could have been cured, only to bob up later and wreck everything. What was equally disastrous, right positions, like our support of the League of Nations before the armistice, were taken unthinkingly merely because the President favored them;

then they collapsed as soon as the excitement was over, because they had no depth and had never been hardened by the hammer-blows of open discussion. And so, when we attained military victory, we did not know what to do with it. No well-informed public opinion existed to carry through Wilson's war aims for a new world order to render impossible the recurrence of disaster."¹

"In his study, *Free Speech in the United States*, Mr. Chaffee gives abundant evidence in support of this criticism of his position. The suppression of freedom of speech, he finds, has been throughout our history a disastrous threat to public safety. As he sums up his results, he takes as a kind of motto the words of John Stuart Mill: 'A State which dwarfs men in order that they may be more docile instruments in its hands even for beneficial purposes, will find that with small men no great thing can really be accomplished.' Mr. Chaffee tells the story, as he sees it, of the futility and disaster which came upon the efforts of President Wilson in World War I as he was driven into the suppression of the Espionage Act.

"President Wilson's tragic failure, according to Mr. Chaffee, was his blindness to the imperative need of public information and public discussion bearing upon the issues of war and peace. He felt bound to prevent substantive evils which might arise from the discussion."²

It may be objected that the persecution by Mr. A. Mitchell Palmer following the last war is a different matter,

¹ Quoted by Alexander Meiklejohn in *Free Speech*, p. 67.

² *Ibid.*, p. 68.

that it is no parallel to this case. Here no legal penalties are exacted from the men dismissed, and we may consider this situation one of "clear and present danger." It should not be forgotten that loss of employment and a virtual boycott from employment in the field in which one is prepared, is an economic penalty of the most extreme form. This is the consequence of dismissal because of membership in the Communist Party. Such a penalty will not only be suffered by these men, it will be suffered by the present generation of students. They will not only be denied direct and open access to Communist teaching. They will be denied access to other forms of teaching which might appear to come under the displeasure of the public or of university administrations. University professors cannot be unmindful that the present stated policy may soon be extended to cover "fellow travelers" as even more dangerous than avowed Party members. Then the "witch-hunt" will be on and the dragnets spread. A spirit of orthodoxy will then descend upon our institutions of higher learning such as now seems to prevail in Soviet Russia.

It should be pointed out here, that in Soviet Russia orthodoxy now extends far beyond the range of the social sciences, touching upon such fields as biology and physics. Thus Soviet Russia may find that once entered upon, the road of orthodoxy can lead only to the destruction of free inquiry and of science itself. This is the most dire calamity that can befall any people. Just as the

lack of information and free discussion cost us the League of Nations and an effective international role between wars, so this abridgment of academic freedom may cost us both our form of government and our free sciences. This is no idle threat.

The doctrine of "clear and present danger" has been appealed to as grounds for abridging the freedom of expression. We must be careful of the interpretation given this principle lest it betray us. Justice Brandeis with the approval of Justice Holmes clarified the principle. "Those who won our independence were no cowards. They did not fear political change. They did not exalt order at the cost of liberty. To courageous, self-reliant men, with confidence in the power of free and fearless reasoning applied through the processes of popular government, no danger flowing from speech can be deemed clear and present, unless the incidence of the evil apprehended is so imminent that it may befall *before there is opportunity for free discussion.*"⁸

"If there be time to expose through discussion the falsehoods and fallacies, to avert by the processes of education, the remedy to be applied is more speech, not enforced silence. Only an emergency can justify suppression. The only allowable justification of it is to be found, not in the dangerous character of a specific set of ideas, but in the social situation which, for the time, renders the community incapable of the reasonable consideration of the issues of policy which confront it. In an emergency, as so defined, there can be no assurance that

⁸Author's italics.

partisan ideas will be fairly and adequately presented. In a word, when such a civil or military *emergency comes upon us*, the processes of public discussion have broken down."⁴ No one would assert that this is such an emergency as Justice Brandeis defined.

In conclusion, the decision of the American people to rule themselves carries with it certain inexorable imperatives. It demands freedom of ideas, freedom of teaching, freedom of discussion. A people can rule themselves only through their collective wisdom. It is the first responsibility of educational institutions to ceaselessly cultivate and pro-

mote that wisdom. To do this they must serve as an open arena of ideas, a forum of free and unlimited discussion. To suppress any point of view but encysts and protects it from the play of ideas. Suppression rarely protects against ideas, and when it does it is at the expense of the intellectual vitality of the society. It is the responsibility of our colleges and universities to educate their publics to the imperative necessity to keep open the channels of communication and to guard them with great devotion. Let the government through its police power take care of seditious acts. We must be the champions of the free mind as we are the guardians of a free society.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 54-55.

The basis of good discipline then, is a willing acceptance by the children of the school's standards of behaviour. This can only be achieved if the school provides a way of life that they can understand, and this implies that the school must take account of their present interests and propensities and must lead them on to the things to which they may rightly aspire. It must be a way of life that the children recognize as something better and fuller than they could devise for themselves, for only thus will it be able to absorb their energies and command their loyalty. If the work of the school is congenial and its purposes are understood there need be no fear that the children will be unwilling to face spells of intensive work which in other circumstances might be mere drudgery for them.—Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers, Board of Education, Ministry of Education, London.

Communists Should Not Teach in American Colleges

RAYMOND B. ALLEN

THE question of whether a member of the Communist Party should be allowed to teach in an American college is by no means a simple one. Despite the fact that many persons in educational circles appear to find easy answers to this question, those of us who have examined the question most carefully perhaps find the answers more difficult.

The general outlines of the examination of this problem in the recent cases at the University of Washington are probably well enough known that they need not be reviewed in detail here. Suffice it to say that the question was surveyed from every angle and with every facility available to the administration and faculty of the University of Washington. The decision, while it may not be fully satisfactory to everyone concerned, is in my opinion the most thoroughly considered and best documented study of the relationship between Communism and higher education yet attempted in America.

Out of this long and painstaking examination I have come reluctantly to the conclusion that members of the Communist Party should not be allowed to teach in American colleges. I am now convinced that a member of the Communist Party is not a free man. Freedom, I believe, is the most essential ingredient of American civilization and democracy. In the American scheme educational institutions are the foundation

stones upon which real freedom rests. Educational institutions can prosper only as they maintain free teaching and research. To maintain free teaching and research the personnel of higher education must accept grave responsibilities and duties as well as the rights and privileges of the academic profession. A teacher must, therefore, be a free seeker after the truth. If, as Jefferson taught, the real purpose of education is to seek out and teach the truth wherever it may lead, then the first obligation and duty of the teacher is to be a free man. Any restraint on the teacher's freedom is an obstacle to the accomplishment of the most important purposes of education.

This kind of freedom, without restraint from any quarter, is the keystone of the unparalleled progress with which America and the American way of life have faced the world. The justification for this kind of freedom, especially as it relates to teaching and research, may be seen in the great accomplishments of our classrooms and laboratories. In my own lifetime, for instance, I have seen the free minds of scholarly men solve most of the mysteries of travel in the air. I have also seen free research evolve a whole new science of electronics that has revolutionized man's ability to communicate with one another. As a medical man I have seen free research wipe out some of the most hideous diseases that have afflicted mankind down

through the centuries. Even my young children have seen free and scholarly men unlock and control the vast and frightening power of the atom. In the past decade, all of us have seen the virility of a free people win out in a death struggle with the slave-states of Germany, Italy and Japan, only now to be faced again by another and perhaps more vicious adversary. These accomplishments I submit are some of the material fruits of freedom in scholarship and teaching.

The freedom that America prizes so much, then, is a positive and constructive concept. It starts, of course, by maintaining a freedom from restraint. Its greatest glory, however, derives from freedom considered in a more positive sense; that is, a freedom "for," a freedom to accomplish. In this best sense, freedom is not only a right and a privilege, but a responsibility which must rest heavily upon the institutions of freedom upon which we depend for the progress and virility of our way of existence.

This kind of freedom, I submit, is not allowed the members of the Communist Party. I have come to this conclusion painfully and reluctantly through a long series of hearings and deliberations. In my opinion these careful studies by faculty and administrative agencies of the University of Washington have proved beyond any shadow of a doubt that a member of the Communist Party is not a free man, that he is instead a slave to immutable dogma and to a clandestine organization masquerading as a political party. They have shown that a member of the Communist Party

has abdicated control over his intellectual life.

The real issue between Communism and education is the effect of Communist Party membership upon the freedom of the teacher and upon the morale and professional standards of the profession of teaching. Many would have us believe that it is an issue of civil liberty. This, I believe, it is not. No man has a constitutional right to membership in any profession, and those who maintain that he has are taking a narrow, legalistic point of view which sees freedom only as a privilege and entirely disregards the duties and responsibilities that are correlative with rights and privileges. The lack of freedom permitted the Communist has a great deal more than a mere passing or academic bearing upon the duties of a teacher.

This bearing, I think, can best be illustrated by a number of questions which I have asked many times and for which I have yet to receive satisfactory answers. Imagine, if you can, a biologist who is unable freely to accept or reject the Mendelian law of heredity. Imagine, instead, a so-called scientist committed by his political affiliations to acceptance of the immutable Lysenko doctrine on the inheritance of human traits. Since I am not a geneticist I obviously should not and will not attempt to judge between these scientific theories. I would point out, however, that the Communist is committed by the party line to the latter point of view. He must accept the Lysenko doctrine and has no freedom to accept or reject either that theory or any other despite

the weight of scientific evidence that supports the Mendelian law and has brought it general acceptance among geneticists throughout the world. It makes no difference here, it seems to me, whether Mendel or Lysenko is right. The issue here involved is, instead, that the Communist has no freedom to accept or reject on the basis of his own experience or thinking. Instead, his mind is chained to that theory which is written into Communist Party dogma.

Or to bring the matter closer home imagine, if you can, a social scientist unable freely to accept or reject the Marshall Plan for aid to the war-stricken countries of Europe and Asia. I will attempt no argument on the virtues or the shortcomings of the Marshall Plan, but I will suggest that the scholar has an obligation to maintain his own freedom to evaluate the Marshall Plan along with other controversial proposals in the present troubled world scene on the basis of his own experience and reasoning. Yet, according to the record of our hearings at the University of Washington, this kind of freedom is not permitted members of the Communist Party who proclaim the right to serve on our faculty. Again, the Communist Party member is chained to a party dogma.

Imagine, if you can, a philosopher who has committed himself by membership in a political party to support universal military training in Russia and to oppose the same principal in the United States. Is this freedom? I say it is not. Yet this is the weird reasoning of one of the men recently dismissed

from the institution I have the honor to head. This man, I maintain, is asserting a freedom which he has denied himself.

For these reasons, I believe a member of the Communist Party is not a free man. His lack of freedom disqualifies him from professional service as a teacher. Because he is not free, I hold that he is incompetent to be a teacher. Because he asserts a freedom he does not possess, I hold that he is intellectually dishonest to his profession. Because he has failed to be a free agent, because he is intolerant of the beliefs of others and because education cannot tolerate organized intolerance, I hold that he is in neglect of his most essential duty as a teacher. For these reasons I believe that Communism is an enemy of American education and that members of the Communist Party have disqualified themselves for service as teachers.

Professor Sidney Hook, Chairman of the Department of Philosophy at New York University, puts it all very succinctly in his recent article in the *New York Times* magazine (February 27, 1949): "What is relevant is that their (the Communist Party members') conclusions are not reached by a free inquiry into the evidence. To stay in the Communist Party they must believe and teach what the party line decrees."

II

The University of Washington's action in dismissing members of the Communist Party from its faculty has been widely criticized as an abridgement of academic freedom. Academic free-

dom in my opinion, however, has been strengthened and not violated by this action. As Professor Hook puts it in the article referred to above: "A professor occupies a position of trust, not only in relation to the university and his student, but to the democratic community which places its faith and hope in the processes of education ('If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization,' wrote Jefferson, 'it expects what never was and what never will be'). Academic freedom, therefore, carries with it duties correlative with rights. No professor can violate them under the pretext that he is exercising his freedom."

Academic freedom in its positive and constructive sense is essential to sound education. That this freedom must be maintained in any university worthy of the name is beyond question. But, I insist, academic freedom consists of something more than merely an absence of restraints placed upon the teacher by the institution that employs him. It demands as well an absence of restraints placed upon him by his political affiliations, by dogmas that stand in the way of a free search for truth, or by rigid adherence to a "party line" that sacrifices dignity, honor, and integrity to the accomplishment of political ends. Men, and especially the teacher and the scholar, must be free to think and discover and believe, else there will be no new thought, no discovery, and no progress. But these freedoms are barren if their fruits are to be hidden away and denied. Men must be free, of course, but they must also be free, and willing, to stand up and profess what they believe

so that all may hear. This is an important, if not the most important, part of our American heritage of freedom. It is this American heritage of freedom that must be cherished and sustained by our institutions of education if they are to survive.

The University of Washington's answer to the tenure cases left on its doorstep by a legislative investigating committee means that whatever violence may have been done to the principles of academic freedom by its dismissal of members of its staff, was done not by action of the University but, instead, by the actions of the individuals involved and by their affiliation with an organization whose dogmas prevented them from being free seekers after truth. The University has maintained that freedom to seek the truth, unhampered by any agency outside the mind of the individual, is the first obligation of any scholar or teacher. It maintains that any such restraint upon the freedom of the teacher puts in jeopardy not only his own academic freedom, but that of the rest of the University as well and especially that of honest liberals and indigenous radicals who certainly perform an essential function in the American university. The University of Washington always has and will continue to assert the right of honest nonconformist thought on the part of its faculty members. Its action in these cases, in my opinion, is a strong defense of liberal and radical thinking which is independent of party dogma and dictation.

It will be recalled that six members of the University faculty were involved in the recent tenure hearings. Three of

these faculty members were dismissed by the Board of Regents on the basis of recommendations by the President of the University and the findings of a faculty committee on tenure and academic freedom. Two of the dismissals were based upon a belated admission of membership in the Communist Party. Dismissal action in the third case was taken, with the concurring recommendation of the faculty committee, because of "an ambiguous relationship to the Communist Party" and for violation of certain aspects of the administrative code of the University.

Perhaps more important to the principles of academic freedom was the disposition of the three other cases in which faculty members were charged with violation of the University's administrative code and whose cases were heard by the same academic tribunal. These cases were muddied, it is true, by the fact that the men involved were former members of the Communist Party, and a certain element of censure was involved in the Regents' action because of this past membership. However, in each of these three cases, the individual involved, while admitting past membership in the Party, denied present membership and thus asserted his freedom from restraint by Communist dogma. In each of these cases all agencies concerned, including the Faculty Committee, the President of the University, and the Board of Regents, refused to take punitive action despite the fact that the individuals involved are well to the left of center in their political thinking and, in one case at least, asserted an intellectual belief in Marxist philosophy.

My recommendation to the Regents in the latter case, and I should point out that this recommendation was upheld by the Board of Regents, makes the following assertion: "Such philosophies (intellectual Marxism), honestly held and divorced from the dogmas of the Communist Party are something quite different from active and secret membership in the Party. I think it is necessary that we maintain a place in the University for the holding of such philosophies, regardless of how strongly we may disagree with them, the only condition being that they not be subject to dictation from outside the mind of the holder. To close the University's doors to honest, nonconformist thought would do violence to the principles of academic freedom that we must maintain at all costs."

Thus, the University's position has been not that it wished to prescribe "the truth" but instead that it insisted that members of its faculty be free to seek the truth and be not restricted in this search by *any* agency other than the intellectual faculties of the individual himself. The University's insistence upon academic freedom goes beyond the traditionally held concept that academic freedom can be abridged only by the institution and asserts that members of the faculty must likewise be free from other restraints that may restrict their freedom.

III

It is perhaps unnecessary to do so, but so much misinformation on the University of Washington cases has been disseminated and unfortunately en-

couraged in some quarters that it may be worthwhile here to clear up one or two points at which misunderstandings have occurred.

First of all, re-emphasis needs to be given to the fact that the University of Washington has attempted only to determine the effect of Communist Party membership on qualifications for the teaching profession. No effort has been made to examine the legality or illegality of the Communist Party. Despite efforts to confuse this issue, the University has not attempted, indeed has made every effort to avoid, a compromise of the basic civil rights of the individuals involved. Every effort was made throughout the lengthy proceedings to be scrupulously fair and to observe full due process, in accordance with the American and Anglo-Saxon traditions, in order to provide safeguards against summary or capricious administrative action. Due process in this instance is spelled out in an established and recognized administrative code, written, approved and accepted by the full faculty of the University. Under the provisions of this code, respondents in these cases were represented by counsel of their own choice, there was no restriction upon their right of producing or questioning evidence, and all other traditions of Anglo-Saxon procedure were observed to the letter. Full and fair hearings were provided by all individuals and agencies participating in the decision, and I am happy to report that there has been no complaint from any informed quarter that the procedure was in any sense a "witch hunt" or an infringement of basic American rights.

Secondly, it should be re-emphasized that the Regents' action in dismissing two members of the faculty for membership in the Communist Party had support in the findings of the Faculty Committee which first heard the cases. This contradicts assertions that have been widely made that the Faculty Committee's recommendations were disregarded in the President's recommendations and in the Regents' action. This is distinctly not the case.

The Faculty Committee's findings in the cases of Dr. Phillips and Mr. Butterworth (the two faculty members dismissed for present Communist Party membership) consisted of four minority opinions. Three members of the eleven-member committee, in two opinions, recommended directly that Phillips and Butterworth be dismissed; three others recommended in a joint opinion that they be retained. The fourth minority opinion, signed by the five other members of the committee, while it did not directly recommend dismissal, clearly stated its agreement as a matter of policy with the opinions recommending severance and explained its failure to join in this recommendation on the ground that its members "would thereby assume a policy-making function beyond our powers." This minority group of five (making a majority of eight of the eleven members of the committee) went on to say: "We believe that it is time that a policy be laid down -by some competent authority, whether it be the faculty as a whole, the President, the Regents, or the Legislature, so as to put this vexed subject upon a basis that can-

not be misunderstood."

Thus, the majority committee finding was that Communist Party membership is disqualifying for a teacher and that a policy to this effect should be established. The recommendations of the President and the action by the Board of Regents did establish a policy in line with this finding of the Faculty Committee. Thus no one can charge in good faith and on the basis of fact that the University of Washington acted in the absence of "due process" and in disregard of the customary usages and expectations of the teaching profession. Likewise, no one can charge in good faith and on the basis of facts that the University took action in these cases in contradiction to or in disregard of the Faculty Committee findings.

IV

Essentially the issue posed by the presence of Communists on our faculties is much larger than that merely between Communism and free education. My position that Communists are not qualified to be teachers grows out of my belief that freedom has little meaning apart from the integrity of the men and women who enjoy that freedom. The larger issue is the issue of the integrity of the teacher and, beyond that, the corporate integrity of education as a whole. Certainly no one will argue that an educational institution, or any other institution, can have greater integrity than that of the individuals who make it up. The Communist Party, with its concealed aims and objectives, with its clandestine methods and techniques,

with its consistent failure to put its full face forward, is a serious reflection upon the integrity of educational institutions that employ its members and upon a whole educational system that has failed to take the Communist issue seriously.

Individual faculty members have a duty and a responsibility to defend the corporate integrity of scholarship and teaching. The atomistic, over-specialized qualities of present day education are perhaps the most serious problems facing the profession today. Education seems to lack a common denominator of concept and belief around which to rally its potentially great strength. In my opinion, however, this lack of a central rallying point for the forces of education is more apparent than real. Education does have such a common denominator. It is education's free and unfettered search for truth. This freedom, it seems to me, is our most precious asset and should be defended at all costs. Without it education as a whole is without orientation. There is strong evidence that this is not a problem of education alone, but of our whole western civilization as well. As a society we have failed to some extent at least to find a common core of objectives, ideals, and an action program about which our way of life may go forward to greater strength and progress. In this view Communism is but one, perhaps minor, aspect of a larger problem that we as a people must face if our democratic society is to survive. Thus Communism assumes a different proportion. It is important because it represents in stark outline the lack of essential integrity

which is democracy's most serious enemy. Without this integrity and the responsibility it entails, freedom is folly itself. Without responsible freedom, democracy and all we hold dear lacks meaning and the possibility of achievement.

We as a people have chosen to live by the hopeful, positive tenets of freedom. Communism is the antithesis and the negation of these tenets. Communism would substitute a doctrine of fear, of little faith and would submerge the human spirit to the vicious ends of a crass materialism. Free education and its endless search for truth cannot gain by association with this doctrine of fear and hate and inhumanity. The American

idea and the idea behind free education, and to my mind the two are inseparable, are "the last best hope on earth." In the final analysis, both rest upon the dignity, the integrity, and the goodwill of free men. As Americans and as educators, it is our responsibility to cherish and sustain this dignity, this integrity, this goodwill and this freedom.

The classroom has been called "the chapel of democracy." As the priests of the temple of education, members of the teaching profession have a sacred duty to remove from their ranks the false and robot prophets of Communism or of any other doctrine of slavery that seeks to be in, but never of, our traditions of freedom.

Never before has this country needed as it does today the leadership of thoroughly trained men and women. We must have leaders inspired from their earliest years with the ideals of true democracy.

Education is our first line of defense. In the conflict of principle and policy which divides the world today, America's hope, our hope, the hope of the world, is in education. Through education alone can we combat the tenets of communism. The unfettered soul of free man offers a spiritual defense unconquered and unconquerable.

We may not know what is behind the Iron Curtain, but we do know that the intelligence of the people in the embattled democracies of Europe, who live in front of the Iron Curtain, is the world's best hope for peace today.—PRESIDENT TRUMAN

Hidden Tuition Charges in High School Subjects

HAROLD C. HAND

FOR completely valid reasons, the American public secondary school is supposed to be a free and "universal" institution.

It is supposed to be "universal"—i.e., it is supposed to serve all the children of all the people—for an intensely practical reason. Except for that tiny fraction of one per cent who must be institutionalized because they are idiots incapable of buttoning buttons, attending to the voiding of bodily wastes, etc., *all* of our youth are variously destined to become husbands or wives, fathers or mothers, employers or employees, neighbors, spenders of income, users of leisure time, drivers of automobiles, readers of newspapers, consumers of motion pictures and radio programs, formulators of public opinion, voters, etc., in our communities. Hence, if the nation is to be strengthened to the maximum, *all* of the sons and daughters of *all* the people must be appropriately educated by the secondary school.

The American public secondary school is supposed to be free in order that it may be "universal."

I

Actually, the American public secondary school is neither free nor "universal." Judged by the criterion of "universality," it is typically a 40-50 per cent failure, for fewer than half of all youth

of the appropriate age ever complete high school.

There is good reason to believe that one of the principal reasons why the high school falls so far short of being "universal" is that it is not free. Instead of being a cost free institution, the public high school is literally loaded with hidden tuition charges. A dozen or so studies conducted over the past 15 years reveal that the average cash cost of attending the supposedly free secondary school was (in the mid-thirties) about \$125 per year per pupil (food, clothing, shelter, and transportation excluded), and that these costs rose sharply from an average of about \$95 for freshmen to a little above \$150 for seniors.

That the high school must be free if it is to be "universal" is implied by the findings of every study of the selective character of the secondary that has been reported over the past quarter of a century. These studies consistently reveal that it is predominantly the economically underprivileged youth who miss out. Typically speaking, the size of the family purse is the most significant thing to know about an American child if one is trying to predict how long he will remain in school.

Approximately 80 secondary schools in Illinois, under the auspices of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program (ISSCP), have taken the neces-

sary first step in doing something about the remedying of this situation. This necessary first step consists in getting the facts about the hidden tuition charges in the local situation.

Seventy-nine high schools, ranging in size from small (under 125) to large

afforded no specific "handles" to "take hold of" in remedying the situation.

In this article we shall note only the principal findings in connection with the per pupil cost of taking school courses. The hidden tuition charges associated with extra-class activities will be re-

TABLE I
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN ENGLISH COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools*	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments }	9	12	.05	.10	.35	1.00	1.25
	12	12	.25	.35	.50	1.50	5.00
Materials, Equipment }	9	70	.05	.45	.70	1.30	7.80
	12	66	.10	.65	1.20	2.00	21.50
Total Cost**							
Purchase	9	37	1.00	2.50	4.10	4.70	7.75
	12	45	1.25	2.45	3.75	4.50	24.00
Rental	9	54	.50	1.05	1.50	2.20	5.66
	12	47	.40	.75	1.35	2.40	20.50
Free	9	9	.00	.25	.40	.45	.50
	12	8	.00	.10	.65	1.65	2.85

* Read "Percent of schools reporting this practice."

** Total cost includes cost or rental fee of textbook. "Purchase," "rental," and "free" refer to textbook procurement practices.

(over 1000), and quite generally distributed over the state (all outside Chicago), utilized the self-survey materials supplied free of charge by the ISSCP¹ in making a "price tag" study of the per pupil cost of taking each course and of participating in each extra class activity in the local school. Such a "price tag" study is necessary if the school is to know exactly "what" and "how big" each of its cost problems is. The earlier "lump sum" studies served a useful purpose in calling attention to the over-all magnitude of the problem but they

ported in a subsequent issue of this journal.

II

We turn now to our task of reporting the per pupil costs of taking school courses in the 65 senior or four-year high schools included among the total of 79 secondary schools in the study. The other 14 institutions were 2, 3, or 4 year junior high schools. Each teacher reported separately the per pupil costs for one school year in connection with each course he was teaching. Because of limitations of space, we shall here report only the data for the ninth and twelfth grades. We shall note the reported costs by separate subject fields beginning with English. It will be observed (Table I)

¹ How to Conduct the Hidden Tuition Costs Study. Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Series, Bulletin No. 4, Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois.

that slightly more than one tenth of the 65 schools levied some fee or assessment in connection with courses in English and that this hidden tuition charge was one dollar or more per pupil in one-fourth of these institutions. Two-thirds

consequence of this fact, the total per pupil cost in such courses was well under three dollars in three-fourths of the schools. Again, the free textbook practice resulted in by far the least drain on the family purse. And again, one or

TABLE 2
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN MATHEMATICS COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments }	9	3	.10	.10	.15	.15	.20
	12	6	.05	.05	.05	.05	.10
Materials, Equipment }	9	73	.05	.20	.40	.70	2.90
	12	51	.05	.15	.25	.60	2.00
Total Cost							
Purchase	9	43	1.25	1.70	1.90	2.15	5.40
	12	49	1.00	1.85	2.50	2.75	3.90
Rental	9	48	.25	.60	.85	1.25	3.05
	12	43	.25	.55	.85	1.00	2.00
Free	9	9	.05	.10	.20	.25	.70
	12	9	.00	.00	.05	.10	.10

or more of the schools required that materials or items of equipment be purchased; this levy upon the pupils' pocketbooks was well over a dollar per student in half of the twelfth grade situations. The total per pupil costs in English were found to vary sharply in reference to the textbook practice in vogue. In general, the cost in "textbook purchase" situations was at least double that in schools utilizing the rental practice, and several times greater than that in the free textbook schools. It is significant that at least one school demonstrated that instruction in English can be made cost free to pupils.

Almost nothing in the way of fees and assessments, and very little in reference to materials and items of equipment, were reported in connection with mathematics courses (Table 2). Probably in

more institutions demonstrated that there need be no hidden tuition charge.

In at least one school (Table 3) the science courses were offered on a cost free basis. In from two to four-fifths of the twelfth grade situations, however, students were obliged to pay fees and assessments or to buy materials and equipment. In over half the cases, these pupils were required to buy textbooks. A much smaller proportion of the schools levied fees or assessments at the ninth grade level, and substantially smaller numbers required the freshmen to buy materials, equipment, or textbooks. In half of all the "textbook purchase" schools, the per pupil cost of taking science courses was in excess of three dollars. Table 3 also reveals that the hidden tuition charges were substantially lower in "free textbook" and

TABLE 3
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN SCIENCE COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments	9	6	.10	.15	.20	1.00	3.00
	12	43	.10	.50	.75	1.00	3.80
Materials, Equipment	9	64	.50	.40	.80	1.10	4.70
	12	87	.20	.95	1.10	1.60	9.20
Total Cost:							
Purchase	9	39	1.20	1.50	3.10	3.25	3.85
	12	53	2.00	3.10	3.75	4.30	10.25
Rental	9	51	.30	.75	1.25	1.95	6.25
	12	45	.50	1.55	2.25	3.30	9.80
Free	9	10	.00	.10	.20	1.30	1.40
	12	2	.50	.50	.50	.50	.50

"textbook rental" situations.

That pupils taking twelfth grade social studies courses need not be burdened with any hidden tuition charge was demonstrated by one school (Table 4). Three-fourths of the schools demonstrated that there need be no fees or assessments in connection with such courses. In more than sixty percent of the institutions, however, social studies students were obliged to pay that species of hidden tuition which masquerades under the title of materials and equip-

ment—a levy which amounted to one dollar or more in one-fourth of the schools. In that two-fifths of the situations in which pupils were obliged to buy their textbooks, the total cost of taking social studies courses "averaged" about three dollars per year per pupil.

The data of Table 5 make it clear that a way can be found to offer commercial courses at no personal cost to the pupil. In over three-fourths of the schools, however, a charge—in excess of twenty dollars in one instance—was

TABLE 4
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments	9	11	.35	.40	.50	1.00	1.00
	12	25	.10	.50	.60	1.00	4.60
Materials, Equipment	9	62	.10	.40	.60	1.00	6.00
	12	82	.10	.50	.65	1.00	5.20
Total Cost:							
Purchase	9	40	1.40	2.40	3.05	3.50	9.00
	12	41	1.75	2.45	3.15	3.85	7.30
Rental	9	55	.35	.75	1.15	1.70	3.50
	12	54	.25	.60	1.00	1.50	3.80
Free	9	4	.10	.10	.15	.20	1.55
	12	5	.00	.50	.60	.75	1.00

TABLE 5
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN COMMERCIAL COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments }	9	5	.30	.80	1.10	1.40	1.75
	12	18	.20	.30	.50	.95	2.00
Materials, Equipment }	9	76	.40	.50	.80	1.00	1.80
	12	87	.20	.90	1.75	3.00	23.40
Total Cost:							
Purchase	9	27	1.50	2.30	3.60	3.30	3.45
	12	38	.90	2.80	3.55	5.00	26.10
Rental	9	51	.50	.80	1.25	1.45	1.75
	12	51	.25	1.05	1.90	3.55	16.00
Free	9	22	.00	.00	.60	1.15	1.25
	12	11	.00	.20	1.20	2.50	4.30

levied for materials and equipment. In half of the "textbook purchase" situations the total cost of taking commercial courses was well in excess of three dollars.

Except in a relatively few schools, there was but very little levied in the name of fees and assessments in foreign language courses (Table 6). In a third to a half of the situations, however, pupils in such courses were required to buy materials or items of equipment. The total per pupil cost "averaged"

about two and a half dollars in the schools in which foreign language textbooks had to be purchased by students. A few schools demonstrated that foreign language instruction can be devoid of any hidden tuition charges.

No tables will be given in reference to courses in art and music. In at least one school in each instance, these courses were reported to be completely free of any hidden tuition charge. The median total cost in connection with music courses was well under one dollar,

TABLE 6
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments }	9	2	.10	.10	.15	.15	.20
	12	13	.10	.15	.20	1.10	2.00
Materials, Equipment }	9	50	.10	.20	.65	.90	3.80
	12	37	.10	.35	.50	1.10	4.35
Total Cost:							
Purchase	9	46	1.20	1.90	2.45	3.25	6.80
	12	30	1.30	2.10	2.60	4.55	7.95
Rental	9	48	.20	.50	.70	1.15	3.80
	12	63	.40	.70	.85	1.10	2.25
Free	9	6	.00	.00	.00	.20	.40
	12	7	.00	.00	.00	2.15	4.35

TABLE 7
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN BOYS' PRACTICAL ARTS COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments	9	57	.25	.50	1.00	1.50	5.00
	12	51	.25	.50	1.00	1.80	5.00
Materials, Equipment	9	80	.15	.70	1.35	3.50	25.00
	12	87	.25	.80	4.65	13.00	37.00
Total Cost:							
Purchase	9	27	1.25	2.35	4.50	6.35	17.50
	12	23	2.25	3.35	4.60	12.10	39.50
Rental	9	54	.65	1.00	2.00	3.70	14.75
	12	45	.75	1.00	3.65	8.00	21.25
Fee	9	15	.00	.50	1.75	2.55	26.00
	12	23	.00	1.20	3.75	11.20	16.10

though this amount ran to over fifteen dollars per pupil in at least three schools. The total per pupil cost of taking an art course was in excess of fourteen dollars in one situation but the ninth and twelfth grade medians were \$1.50 and \$2.45, respectively.

III

In practical arts offerings we encounter one of the types of courses which, because they are usually forced to enter the labor market upon gradu-

ation from high school, the economically underprivileged youth especially need. It will be noted (Tables 7 and 8) that these courses are both more generally and more heavily loaded with hidden tuition charges than was observed in connection with the more academic subjects already discussed. Half or more of the schools impose a fee or assessment, and four-fifths or more require pupils to buy materials or items of equipment, in connection with both the boys' and the girls' practical arts offer-

TABLE 8
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN GIRLS' PRACTICAL ARTS COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments	9	57	.10	.15	.25	.75	1.40
	12	51	.10	.20	.45	1.50	2.00
Materials, Equipment	9	80	.15	2.60	5.55	8.50	31.00
	12	87	.25	1.50	6.55	11.50	48.95
Total Cost:							
Purchase	9	27	3.85	5.05	7.10	8.60	10.00
	12	23	.75	.85	3.20	5.00	17.75
Rental	9	54	.50	2.60	5.25	9.10	22.40
	12	45	.40	.75	2.85	6.20	35.55
Fee	9	15	.00	5.05	6.10	14.25	31.00
	12	23	.50	.60	7.80	13.00	15.55

TABLE 9
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN VOCATIONAL COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments }	9	18	.50	.50	.60	1.00	1.50
	12	32	.25	.50	1.00	2.00	5.00
Materials, Equipment }	9	64	.10	.40	1.00	2.20	15.00
	12	96	.20	.55	1.30	4.80	37.00
Total Cost:							
Purchase	9	15	1.40	3.00	3.45	5.20	9.40
	12	20	1.00	3.00	4.75	17.90	39.50
Rental	9	46	.30	.75	1.25	2.50	7.35
	12	60	.50	.85	1.25	3.00	6.35
Free	9	10	.10	.60	1.35	2.85	5.60
	12	8	1.10	9.05	15.00	18.45	21.90

ings. The totals of the hidden tuition charges associated with such courses are also much greater than any noted in the preceding tables. In one-fourth of all the ninth grade situations this aggregate is well in excess of eight dollars for girls. At least one school, however, has found that all such levies on the family exchequer can be completely eliminated in connection with courses in the practical arts.

From about two-thirds to practically all of the schools require that materials and/or equipment be purchased by pupils who are taking vocational courses (Table 9). This levy was nearly five dollars per pupil in about one-fourth of

the twelfth grade situations. Although no school had been able to eliminate all personal costs to pupils in its vocational courses, in at least one institution these amounted to but ten cents. At the other extreme, these hidden tuition charges totalled \$39.50 in one high school.

This brings us to a consideration of the physical education courses—courses which pupils are required to take in all or virtually all schools. With the practical arts offerings these courses share the dubious distinction of being the most burdensome on the family purse (Tables 10 and 11). Fees or assessments are levied in well over forty percent of the

TABLE 10
PER PUPIL COSTS FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN BOYS' PHYSICAL EDUCATION COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments }	9	45	.10	.35	1.00	2.00	4.50
	12	42	.25	.40	.75	2.00	5.25
Materials, Equipment }	9	100	.10	5.50	6.40	8.00	16.80
	12	97	.25	5.55	6.50	8.25	11.90
Total Cost	9	100	.50	5.80	7.10	8.45	16.80
	12	100	.50	5.75	7.15	8.75	14.40

situations. For girls this levy was one dollar or more in half of the schools. In one-fourth it was two dollars or more for boys. The practice of requiring pupils to buy materials or items of equipment was all but universal. For both sexes, this hidden tuition charge was five dollars or more per pupil in three-fourths

be said that their courses are tuition free. Many of the same institutions were included in the 1947-48 Holding Power Study of the ISSCP in which it was found that over 70 percent of all youth who had dropped out of school over the preceding four years came from families low on the income scale. It is impossible

TABLE II
PER PUPIL COST FOR ONE SCHOOL YEAR IN GIRLS' PHYSICAL EDUCATION COURSES

Item of Cost	School Grade	Percent of Schools	Cost				
			Low	Q ₁	Median	Q ₃	High
Fees and Assessments }	9	45	.10	.50	1.00	1.65	9.75
	12	42	.25	.50	1.00	2.00	5.00
Materials, Equipment }	9	100	.35	5.30	6.15	7.50	12.00
	12	97	.50	5.00	6.30	8.00	13.25
Total Cost	9	100	.50	5.35	6.60	8.25	14.00
	12	100	.50	4.50	6.15	8.00	14.55

of the institutions. When combined, these charges brought the median total per pupil cost of taking physical education courses to well over six dollars for girls and to slightly above seven dollars for boys. For both sexes, the total cost was eight dollars or more per pupil in one-fourth of the schools.

These findings make it clear that the high schools in question have some little distance to go before it can realistically

to establish cause and effect relationships in such studies, but it is highly probable that the magnitude of the hidden tuition charges in connection with the courses and the extra-class activities (data to be presented in a subsequent issue of this magazine) in these schools has more than a little to do with the fact that economically underprivileged youth drop out in such disproportionately large numbers.

Not to spend as much time in thinking about what we read as in reading is an insult to our author.—ARNOLD BENNETT

Music in the Education of the Whole Man

SIEGMUND LEVARIE

(Presented 27 December 1948 before the convention of the
College Music Association in Chicago)

I

A discussion of music in the education of the whole man presupposes agreement on the meaning of the three terms involved. This is not the proper time and place to develop theories on the function of music, on the final cause of education, and on the characteristics of the whole man. In order to make quick communication between us possible, I submit the following propositions. They are to be taken hypothetically, for the argument's sake, rather than dogmatically, as final answers.

The propositions are these: (1) Music is an imitative art which differs from other imitative arts (poetry, painting, and sculpture) in that it imitates character directly, while letters, figures, and colors are only signs and not imitations of moral habits.¹ (2) Education is the development of all man's powers to fit him for all the activities of life.² (3) The whole man is one who possesses not only practical but also philosophic wisdom.³

Before establishing relations between these three propositions—as required by

the topic of this meeting—we must briefly defend their usefulness. They are taken from Aristotle. Those among us who are Aristotelians will accept them on the strength of past experiences, which have proved that we musicians can profit greatly by applying to our specialized field the deep wisdom and psychological insight of the general philosopher. Those among us who are anti-Aristotelians will yet have to recognize the advantage of an organized system, which provides a touchstone for further investigations—whether one personally feels in accord with the system or not. Those among us, finally, who might say, "What is Aristotle to us in the twentieth century?" would be faced with the necessity of substituting propositions and a system of their own if they were to deal with the problem of discussing music in the education of the whole man; and the argument would resolve into one of philosophical dialectics.

Aristotle maintains (in the eighth book of his *Politics*)⁴ that music should be studied for the sake, not of one, but of many benefits, that is to say, (1) with a view to amusement (or purgation, as he sometimes calls it), (2) for intellectual enjoyment, and (3) in order to produce the good man. It is my plan to investigate these three statements first

¹ Aristotle *Politics*, viii, 1340a.

² Richard P. McKeon, ed., *The Basic Works of Aristotle* (New York, 1941), p. 1125.

³ Aristotle *Nicomachean Ethics* vi. 1143b, 1144a.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 1341b.

on their own merit and then test them—with your help—by applying them to our own problems as music teachers.

II

The study of music for the sake of amusement is the most obvious benefit. A function of all arts is to bring about a catharsis in the spectator or listener. The emotional appeal of music has probably touched more people than that of poetry or painting. One can more easily conceive of people insensitive to museums or books than imagine people unresponsive to music. Our initial definition of music contains an explanation for this phenomenon. We proposed, as you remember, that music imitates character directly, while words, lines, and colors are only symbols. The word "desire," for instance, does not come closer to the true feeling to be expressed than the German equivalent *Sehnsucht*, or any other combination of letters which a group of people has agreed to recognize as a conventional symbol. Music, on the other hand, needs no translation of arbitrarily interpolated symbols. A full cadence stopped short on the dominant, for instance, will directly create in the listener desire—in this case, for the final resolution into the tonic chord. We feel deceived, disappointed or surprised, if a deceptive cadence interferes; satisfied or pleased if the desire is properly answered. The joy of hearing the expected resolution is a direct experience for which the letters *j-o-y* form only a symbol. The purging aspects of music in relation to education are neatly

summed up in the eighth book of the *Politics*: "Amusement is for the sake of relaxation, and relaxation is of necessity sweet, for it is the remedy of pain caused by toil. . . . All men agree that music is one of the pleasantest things. . . . Hence and with good reason it is introduced into social gatherings and entertainments, because it makes the hearts of men glad: so that on this ground alone we may assume that the young ought to be trained in it."¹

Our present educational system provides adequately enough for the needs of amusement, or purgation. Excellent teachers of voice and instruments are available in all parts of the country. Anyone who wishes can learn how to play or sing well enough, within his limitations, to amuse himself and some others. This situation holds true on all technical levels of performance. There are more children of high-school age playing and singing in orchestras and choirs today than in any other century; and there are more virtuosi crowding the concert stages today than, I would almost say, in any other decade. As listeners, people can keep themselves amused and purged by music on a twenty-four-hour-a-day schedule: when live performers become exhausted, radio and phonograph can carry on with almost no practical limitations.

III

But music education for amusement alone is not enough. It does not fill the whole man. The Greek philosopher recognized this danger more clearly than those present-day musicians who lose

¹ 339b.

their soul by selling it to the industrializer of emotional purgation, the concert agent. The pleasures of music which we have described so far do not exist, he says, for the sake of any future good; they are merely an alleviation of past toils and pains.⁶ As a safeguard against mistaking amusement for the end, the lower for the higher, he suggests in his moderate way that "the right measure will be attained if students of music stop short of the arts which are practised in professional contests, and do not seek to acquire those fantastic marvels of execution which are now the fashion in such contests, and from these have passed into education. Let the young practise . . . music . . . only until they are able to feel delight in noble melodies and rhythms, and not merely in that common part of music in which every slave or child and even some animals find pleasure."⁷ This is strong language, but I wonder whether music education for the sake of amusement would not fare better today if it emphasized the "delight in noble melodies and rhythms" rather than the "fantastic marvels of execution . . . in professional contests." As it is, we are turning out too many musicians who—in the happy analogy made by my colleague Howard Talley—are like clerk-typists (Aristotle said "slaves"): their fingers move fast, and they are useful to other people; but they do not understand what they are typing.

Intellectual enjoyment of music, then,

⁶ *Ibid.* 1

⁷ *Ibid.* 1341a.

⁸ McKeon, p. 931.

is the second purpose of music education. Unlike the amusement value of music, which provides alleviation of past toils and pains, intellectual enjoyment exists also for the sake of future good. Our initial definition of the whole man as one possessing both practical and philosophic wisdom may help us develop this statement. Practical wisdom tells us how to do certain things. It is the knowledge of how to secure the ends of human life.⁸ It ensures the taking of proper means to the proper ends. An engineer faced with the problem of air transportation, for instance, will prove his practical wisdom by constructing a plane adequate to meet the specific demands. Similarly, a flutist faced with a flute composition will prove his practical wisdom by playing the prescribed notes. Both the engineer and the flutist know "how to" achieve certain results. But neither of the two, if endowed with practical wisdom only, will be qualified to judge the merits of the desired ends. The airplane may be used to transport a superbomb and hence serve a morally bad end. The fact that the airplane is a good airplane testifies to the engineer's practical wisdom. The fact that the airplane is put to bad use testifies to the engineer's lack of philosophic wisdom. Similarly, the flute player who has mastered all the notes of his score has proved only his practical wisdom: he knows "how to" move his fingers; but he needs philosophic wisdom to judge whether it is at all advisable for him to play a certain composition in a given situation.

Philosophic wisdom is gained from a

knowledge of the principles from which any science proceeds⁹ and from a scientific development of these principles. In terms of a music educator in the United States in the twentieth century, philosophic wisdom can be gained from all those courses which investigate the question "why" rather than the question "how to." The flute player, after taking such a course, might not only provide mere amusement, by relieving past tensions, but also influence his listeners for the future by introducing an element of evaluation, of judgment, into his performance. Our present educational system makes such music training possible, even though it is far less popular than the unscientific approach. Critical teachers are greatly outnumbered by practical teachers. Music departments in universities are outnumbered by music schools and conservatories. Emphasis on practical wisdom and lack of philosophic wisdom are responsible for performers who play faster every year at the expense of a well-rounded repertory and an understanding of the nonverbal communication contained in every composition. But this condition is gradually improving, I think, rather than deteriorating. Even the most unscientific teacher gets an occasional word in about harmony and form. Basic theory and history courses are being attached to, and made compulsory in, curricula of conservatories which are primarily concerned with the training of performers. Critical departments of music in universities are hold-

ing their own against the commercial pressure from practical musicians. Some of them, like those at Cornell and Columbia, clearly place intellectual training above practical training; a few universities, like Chicago, exclude practical training altogether from the curriculum by making it a prerequisite to be obtained elsewhere. Moreover, this convention, and your presence in particular, are the most impressive symptoms of an awareness of the need of a music education for intellectual enjoyment. Were we to adopt a resolution, I would propose that we copy verbatim the paragraph with which Aristotle sums up his opinion on this point: "Thus we reject the professional instruments and also the professional mode of education in music (and by professional we mean that which is adopted in contests), for in this the performer practises the art, not for the sake of his own improvement, but in order to give pleasure, and that of a vulgar sort, to his hearers. For this reason, the execution of such music is not the part of a freeman but of a paid performer, and the result is that the performers are vulgarized, for the end at which they aim is bad. The vulgarity of the listener tends to lower the character of the music and therefore of the performers; they look to him—he makes them what they are, and fashions even their bodies by the movements which he expects them to exhibit."¹⁰

IV

The third benefit of music education remains to be discussed: the moral effect it has on man. You are familiar

⁹*Ibid.*

¹⁰ *Politics* viii. 1341b.

with the system of ethics that the Greeks connected with music. Each melody, mode, rhythm, and instrument influenced the character of man in a very specific manner. The Mixolydian tonality made men sad and grave;¹¹ the Phrygian inspired enthusiasm; others, again, enfeebled the mind or produced a moderate and settled temper. The aulos, a double-reed wind instrument, aroused immoral and passionate excitement¹² while the lyra, a plucked stringed instrument, was conducive to virtue. This recognition of the ethical value of music poses a considerable problem to us. We dare not deny it, for too many great thinkers have taken it for granted: not only Plato (in the third book of his *Republic*) and Aristotle, but—a thousand years later—Boethius; and, from its beginnings until the present moment, the Roman Catholic Church, in its careful prescriptions about the use of music. On the other hand, the ethical role of music is not in the conscious foreground of a twentieth-century musician or music educator. We do not convert criminals into virtuous citizens by buying them phonographs. We do not fear for the future of our children after letting them hear *Pierrot Lunaire*. Once in a great while we are aware of moral implications: when considering the participation of saxophones in a church service, for instance, or reading about the official Communist rebuke of Shostakovich and company. But even these two examples are not so com-

pletely free of extra-musical factors as the old Greek modes; and we are at a loss trying to make a moral distinction between C major and C minor, or between an oboe and a harp.

I do not pretend to be able to resolve the dilemma, though I am convinced that music education of the whole man should be concerned not only with his amusement and intellectual enjoyment, but also with his ethics. I hope that the discussion following my thesis will investigate this difficulty. As a possible starting point for the discussion and a conclusion to my application of Aristotelian principles to questions of modern education I wish to submit the following possible interpretation.

Men of all ages, we as well as the Greeks of antiquity, have believed, more or less consciously, that music has an ethical function. A central problem of Greek civilization was the formation of character. The free Greek citizen was expected to act differently from an Asiatic barbarian or endemic slave. The study of character is reflected in Greek philosophy and Greek art. It forms the core of Greek drama. It permeated all cultural pursuits and eventually captured a place in music which it maintained by means of what must have been strong conditioning.

Today the central problem of our civilization is probably not the formation of individual character. While we still suspect a moral function of music in the widest sense, we no longer accept its narrower application to character alone. Attempts to translate the Greek ethical system into modern terms

¹¹ *Ibid.* 134 ob.

¹² *Ibid.* 134 1a.

have failed, therefore, and, moreover, have discouraged efforts to find a new place for music in the realm of ethics. In the twentieth century I have come across one lead—given by a philosopher and now up to us musicians to follow. In the concluding chapter of *Science and the Modern World*, Alfred North Whitehead investigates requisites for social progress. After criticizing various systems of education, he recommends training for the appreciation of variety of value. To Whitehead, sensitiveness to values is identical with aesthetic growth. "There is something between the gross specialized values of the mere practical man, and the thin specialized values of the mere scholar. Both types have missed something; and if you add together the two sets of values, you do not obtain the missing elements. What is wanted is an appreciation of

the infinite variety of vivid values achieved by an organism in its proper environment. When you understand all about the sun and all about the atmosphere and all about the rotation of the earth, you may still miss the radiance of the sunset. There is no substitute for the direct perception of the concrete achievement of a thing in its actuality. We want a concrete fact with a high light thrown on what is relevant to its preciousness.

What I mean is art and aesthetic education . . . What we want is to draw out habits of aesthetic apprehension."¹⁸

Perhaps the question of values is central to modern man, as that of character formation was to the Athenians. If so, music can increase the depth of individuality of the whole man, not only by amusing him and providing him with intellectual enjoyment, but foremost by helping him become a good man.

¹⁸ New York, 1925.

It is the duty of the teacher to be just, courageous, and professional in all his relations with pupils. He should consider their individual differences, needs, interests, temperaments, aptitudes, and environments. He should refrain from tutoring pupils of his classes for pay, and from referring such pupils to any member of his immediate family for tutoring. The professional relations of the teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous care that is required in the confidential relations of one teacher with another.—Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession, National Education Association

The Evolution of a Radio Broadcast

ISABELLE J. LEVI

HIGH schools of the country have for many years used in all subjects discussion techniques. The social studies lend themselves particularly to this method. The Junior Town Meeting is an effective discussion technique. Its use in the classroom, in the assembly, on the radio, requires the mastery of special teaching procedures.

Junior Town Meeting is concerned with the discussion of current affairs. Before Town Meeting techniques may be used, a place must be found on the program of studies for discussion of current issues. Some history teachers prefer to have some such discussion each day; others set aside one day a week when a current affairs periodical is used. Very often, this period is a waste of time, because students report on incidents more often than trends. A course of study in current affairs should be made by the teacher at the beginning of the school year. She should select topics which appear to be of major importance. These topics should be studied intensively, correlated with the course in history, wherever possible. However, much of this correlation is so artificial that the average history teacher finds it more profitable to teach history four days a week, current affairs, one day. In American Problems many items of a current affairs course will appear as part of the regular Problems course.

In the current affairs period, methods of discussing may vary. Junior Town

Meeting is valuable in getting facts, weighing values, reaching conclusions. Also, the radio broadcast may serve as an incentive.

For the novice in Junior Town Meeting radio production, much of the work appears routine. However, to the experienced, such production means the most careful and minute preparation. Before undertaking the radio production, the sponsor must have repeatedly used Town Meeting technique in the classroom and perhaps in the auditorium.

The subject for the radio broadcast is of much importance. A topic in the course in current affairs may be chosen. Since Town Meeting technique requires audience participation, it may be advisable to select a subject within the experience not only of the four speakers, but of the entire student body. This is especially true if Town Meeting originates from the school auditorium, when the pupils of the school play a vital part in the question period. Administrators advise that previous to the broadcast, discussion of the topic be carried on in all classrooms. This may be possible, but not feasible, since often teachers or administrators may be uninterested or uncooperative. The radio station officials make the criticism that adults do not care to listen to abstract subjects discussed by teen-agers and recommend subjects about which pupils have some knowledge.

The sponsor in charge of the radio program should be a social studies

teacher. A speech teacher is not the best sponsor, since full understanding of and research into subject matter are of more importance than voice training.

The process of choosing the four speakers may vary. The first requisite is a desire on the part of the students to do research and to be interested. Many students may be given bibliographies, should be advised to read for a week, and then to write speeches. Here the novice sponsor may receive a shock. Few high school students can write exposition. The sponsor must correct speeches, rewrite some parts, combine several parts. The beginning and end of the speeches as written by the students are apt to be especially weak.

The next step by the sponsor is to test voices, using completed speeches for reading. The use of a mirrorphone is the best way to have students realize their own weaknesses. A disagreeable voice should never be selected. A student who cannot improve after repeated suggestion, is a poor choice.

After four speakers have been selected additional reading on the topic is urged. The sponsor and students have discussions of every phase of the subject. Then the students are ready for their first trial. They appear before a class, give their speeches, and reply to questions. The sponsor then holds several more sessions with students over the phases of the subject raised by the questions. The four students also then decide about the questions they wish to ask each other. A "peppy" broadcast is one in which each student "barges in" on the other's answers, where humor and glibness are

important.

The sponsor's next work is to be certain that students, other than the four speakers, are ready to take part in the warm-up or preliminary session, that there will be many students ready to ask questions. The seating of these students in the auditorium is another small but important item.

It seems clear that a Junior Town Meeting radio broadcast cannot be produced in a class period, although familiarity with the techniques as employed in the classroom are absolutely necessary.

The sponsor who teaches five classes five days a week and has study hall duties in addition, must have infinite patience. The preparation of students must be careful and complete. The sponsor must realize, too, that in the preparation of such a program her colleagues and supervisors may not be interested, may in fact, make careful preparation a much greater task. A colleague who insists on interrupting rehearsals by repeated messages to one of the participants, an administrator who advises that a student's speech is "no good," that it be "torn-up and re-written," one who permits janitors to sweep the auditorium at the last rehearsal of the program, are obstacles for which one must be prepared.

Since understanding of current problems is of common concern and since Junior Town Meeting is an effective technique toward this understanding, administrators and teachers should work together to make a Junior Town Meeting broadcast a success.

Federal Aid to Education*

JOHN K. NORTON

FEDERAL aid for public schools is receiving much attention these days. A majority of citizens, including leaders from many walks of life, favor federal, financial assistance to help the states and localities in operating their schools.

Why has federal aid come to have such wide acceptance?

I

There are four compelling reasons why the principle of federal aid for public schools has won the support of our citizens.

First, the people want federal funds for the schools so that every American child and youth may have a chance to get a good education.

Only part of our children now have such a chance. While half the children of the United States, those in favored regions and communities generally attend good schools, the other half go to poor schools, sometimes to very poor schools, and sometimes to no schools at all. Let us look at some of the facts which show how poor education is in many states and localities:

During World War II seventeen million young men were examined for military service. Five million were rejected for physical, mental or educational deficiencies. Six hundred fifty-nine thousand of them were sent home because they could not read nor write. General

Hershey, Head of Selective Service, said this about the situation:

With the great pressure on our manpower, it is regrettable that we lost so many who were physically qualified, rejected because of illiteracy.

Have the school conditions behind this shocking statement been corrected? No, they have not.

Today, more than three years after the end of the war, there are 8,200,000 persons over 14 years of age in the United States who have had so little schooling that they are illiterate for all practical purposes.

Two million children of grammar school age are not in school at all.

Other millions of children attend poverty stricken schools in which at best they barely learn to read and to write. They get little education for intelligent and loyal citizenship, which is so essential today. They lack health education and vocational training. If war should come tomorrow we would again find that millions of our young men lack the skills, the knowledge, the health which a modern soldier must have.

Second, the people want federal aid for schools because they have come to realize that when millions of children are short changed on their education, the whole nation is endangered.

Poor education breeds a pest of ills—such as illiteracy, lack of training for citizenship, and low earning capacity. These ills do not merely remain to fester

* Broadcast over ABC network, January 30, 1949.

in the educational slums where they originate. They migrate from state to state.

Six million civilians changed their residences in the six months after the close of the war. Half of the citizens of some states were born in other states. Great cities import many of the residents of their slums. In short, ignorance cannot be quarantined. Its effects can be avoided only if it is prevented.

II

Third, the people want federal aid for education because without some help many states cannot afford adequate schooling for all children.

This fact has been clearly established by a number of fiscal studies. For example, here is a quotation from the notable report of the American Youth Commission:

In proportion to their means, the poorest states make the greatest effort to support schools. Despite great sacrifice, they are unable to provide good schools for all the children—The Commission believes that financial support must be provided by the Federal Government if an adequate educational system is to be developed throughout the country. Those who oppose federal aid avoid this hard fact. They do not mention fiscal researches which show that the less wealthy states cannot afford good schools for all children and youth.

Rather, they talk in generalities—"the poorer states can do the job if they will" they say. Or "just wait a little longer and everything will be all right." For thirty years they have been saying these things while millions of Americans have grown up, lacking the education

to prepare them for the duties of citizenship.

Those who would brush off this dangerous situation ignore the fact that the poorer states, those which have the larger percentages of illiterate citizens, are already taxing themselves at higher rates for schools than the richer states.

Mississippi, for example, with the lowest income per capita levies taxes for schools at rates from 25 to 35 percent higher than does New York State. A high tax rate, however, raises little money for schools when there is little to tax. And there will continue to be little to tax in some states, so long as the vicious circle of ignorance begetting poverty, and poverty begetting ignorance, is allowed to continue.

Federal aid can help break this circle by guaranteeing all children a chance to get a reasonable amount of schooling.

Fourth, the people want federal aid for schools in order to strengthen state and local control of education, and to prevent federal control.

One often hears the opposite from this. It is so easy to say that federal aid means federal control. It sounds plausible.

But let us look at the record. From the very beginning of our history the national government has provided aid for education, first by resolution of the Continental Congress in 1785, and since then often from the federal Congress.

In fact, the federal government did much to establish our public school systems. The early federal grants still help to finance our schools. This federal aid has not resulted in federal control, al-

though it has now been received by the schools for over a century and a half.

In 1862, the Congress took another important step to aid education. President Lincoln signed a bill which appropriated funds to establish a college in every state. These colleges have grown and render great service. They, in considerable degree, account for the high productivity of the American farmer. These colleges receive millions of dollars of federal support each year. They are not federally controlled.

We have given two illustrations of federal aid without federal control—both of them have been in operation a long while. There are others which might be cited.

It is not federal aid which tempts Congress to take over education. Rather, it is the fact that every so often, usually in some national crisis, it is dramatically shown that millions of Americans have been denied their educational birthrights. Then, Congress is tempted to step in and do the job itself.

III

But there is a better way. The historic American way of dealing with this matter is for the federal government to provide enough help to the states so that all of them can maintain respectable schools. This strengthens state and local school systems. It permits them to provide the kind of schooling called for today. It removes the temptation for federal operation of education.

We know how federal aid can be provided without federal control. A century of experience has shown us how. Here

is the way it can be done:

First, the people of the nation, acting through Congress, decide upon some minimum sum which is deemed essential in order to provide a reasonable amount of schooling for each child. Suppose the sum decided upon is \$50 a year per pupil. Even this small amount would vastly improve the quality of education for millions of children.

Second, each state raises as much of the \$50 per child as it can, by levying a specified and reasonable tax on the income, or taxable resources of its people.

Third, the difference between what the state can raise, and the amount necessary to provide \$50 per child, is appropriated as federal aid.

Thus, all children get at least a minimum of education, each state pays what it can toward this minimum, and the federal government provides the rest.

All money, federal as well as state and local, is expended under the control of state and local schools officials.

We have shown why the American people favor federal aid for education.

They want it because millions of children have not been able to get, and are not now getting, a fair school deal.

They want it because without federal aid, millions of children and youth will continue to be short changed on their education, and the whole nation will be weaker as a result.

They want it because some states are not financially able to afford the cost of good education for all their children.

They want it to strengthen state and local control of the schools, and to remove temptations for federal interfer-

ence in education, which result from the shocking educational shortages which rise up to plague us in every national crisis.

These are the reasons why leaders from all walks of life now support federal aid for public schools—such men and women as—Elmer Davis, Eric Johnson, Walter Lippmann, Mrs. Eugene Meyer, and Phillip Murray, President Conant of Harvard, Charles Luckman, Walter White, Stephen S. Wise, Raymond Rubicam, President Eisenhower of Columbia, and many others.

The principle of federal aid for education has enlisted the support of scores of organizations such as the American Legion, the American Association of University Women, the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, the National League of Women Voters, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Farmers Union, the National Grange, the National School Boards Association, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, and the National Educational Association.

The merits of the case for federal aid for education have caused many great newspapers such as the *Herald-Tribune* of New York City, the *New York Times*, the *Washington Post*, and the *San Francisco Chronicle*, to revise their former positions and favor federal aid for public education.

The compelling rightness of federal aid for education is why statesmen of both great parties now see that federal aid is in the national interest. Leading Republicans in large numbers, such as Senators Taft of Ohio, Ives of New York and Aiken of Vermont, now strongly support this idea.

President Truman in his State-of-the-Union Message said:

"I cannot repeat too strongly my desire for prompt federal financial aid to the states to help them operate and maintain their schools. Our schools in many localities," he added, "are utterly inadequate. It is shocking that millions of our children are not receiving a good education."

Perhaps no other group has stated the situation more clearly and in fewer words, than the important citizens who served under the chairmanship of Owen D. Young on the American Youth Commission. They reported as follows:

Equalization of educational opportunity should be regarded realistically, not as a charity from wealthy cities and states to their poorer brethren, but as a necessary provision for national security. (Children born on poor land are as much citizens as those born in rich areas. Their education is a national concern.)

In this statement we have the fundamental reason why the principle of federal aid has enlisted the support of the people of the United States.

The man who first ruined the Roman people was the man who first gave them things for nothing.—PLUTARCH

Caldron

GLADYS VONDY ROBERTSON



These are the gilded years the white man craves
for a pure race, the years that mark his hour
upon the earth when, flushed with strength, he craves
supremacy, the bosom asp of power.

These are his years and, unaware, a pall
is hovering where he smugly walks and floods
the world with his largesse. All others fall
below his star. Can they be lesser bloods?
Will dark grow white? The brightest pigment fades
beneath the searching rays of the mid-day sun,
and pearly hues blend with the earthy shades
of red and yellow before the day is done.

The white man gilds himself. Will he lose face
when his blood swells the veins of every race?

Social Drama in Education

ARTHUR KATONA

I

EMOTIONS and Social Learning—The old-fashioned approach to social learning is the book-lecture method, in other words, talking. The modern approach is emotional experiential, that is, feeling and doing. Unfortunately the old approach still dominates our schools while the new struggles in pioneer fashion against academic tradition.

In the understanding of ourselves and others to the end that we may live constructively together—which is the essence of social learning—the emotions, not the intellect, play the primary role. We learn about each other for good or ill through the heart rather than the head. Educators for the most part, however, continue to stress the primacy of the intellect and as a result teachers and students are bogged down in a verbalism cut off from the flesh-and-blood world of feeling and experiencing.

The academic fallacy that learning is a matter of the intellect is perhaps one of the main reasons why schoolmen are so ineffective in influencing people's behavior. In contrast, propagandists, advertisers, public relations experts who mold beliefs and actions utilize the emotional approach for all it is worth and hire emotion-men like psychologists and artists to "win friends and influence people."

In genuine social learning, which involves the personality developing in interaction with other personalities, emotion and intellect are fused together. No artificial schoolroom separation takes

place. Learning is deep, warm, colorful, unlike traditional school learning which is surface, cold, colorless, a way of verbalizing.

This way of verbalizing is left behind as the student leaves the classroom for the live world of emotion and action outside. The compartmentalization thus made by the student reflects the schoolman's separation of emotion and intellect. This in turn reflects the cleavage between school and society, which progressive educators have been trying to span.

Emotions are power sources and the problem is not how to curb, repress, or banish them—a psychological impossibility anyway—but how to utilize them in socially constructive ways. In other words, we should have them make for richer individual and group life.

Here is where the arts may come in to help the educator. Painting, sculpture, music, literature, dance, drama have a tremendous potential of emotional, esthetic, and recreational values scarcely tapped by the schools. Through them the individual may express creatively his own emotions, experience vicariously the emotional vicissitudes in the lives of others, and draw closer to his fellow men in mutual understanding and sympathy. Take the dance, for example. A modern ballet interpreting a crisis situation like war, unemployment, or race oppression may provide a vivid, edifying social-emotional experience. A square dance for school and community may induce a warm, neighborly

glow of fellowship in action.¹

The motion picture and radio, our "technological art forms," have reached at rare times high artistic levels. While actually they are huge commercialized means of publicity and entertainment, potentially they are marvelously effective means of social learning. The schools should use them to a much greater extent than is being done. By steadily raising standards educators may be able to make them less like mass publicity agents and more like mass art mediums.

II

Dramatic Techniques in Social Learning—Drama perhaps packs more emotional "kick" than any of the arts. It shows us with impressive nearness the conflicts of flesh-and-blood characters. It is an especially good instrument of social learning since it provides opportunity for both participation and observation of a vivid kind. Motivation for its use already exists, since people young and old love to play-act and to see others play-act.

Drama in education may be said to have two important functions: to promote emotional development and to provide vicarious experience. In practice, of course, the functions operate together as aspects of the same influential force. I am separating them for the purpose of analytical emphasis, namely, that drama may afford expressive re-

lease of the emotions and build up humane feelings and attitudes and at the same time allow for the experiencing of many other lives besides our own.

I shall deal with five types of drama in education: social drama proper, role-playing, sociodrama, script reading, dramatic recording. These are not rigid categories; they are titled and classified for the sake of expository convenience. In practice they may overlap, merge, or combine. And they may be adapted to suit one's purpose and the situation at hand. I shall deal with social drama in detail since it is the most organized of the types.

Social Drama. This is a regularly rehearsed play portraying a social problem to an audience that discusses the problem as soon as the play is over. A typical social drama program may proceed like this: a brief preliminary announcement of the play and the discussion to follow; the play itself; the forum led by a moderator or panel of moderators who open and guide discussion and bring it to some sort of summary or conclusion. Plans may be made for further discussion, study, and, possibly, social action.

The play warms up the audience for the discussion that follows. It stirs thoughts and emotions into grips with the problem being presented and stimulates free yet orderly expression of them under the guidance of the moderator. When we put on our first social drama program, on racial segregation, at Ohio University, we were amazed at the enthusiastic response of the audience.² Hands eagerly kept coming up for recognition to give opinions, narrate experiences, analyze causes, propose cures.

¹ Cf. Betty Massingale Nelson, "Fun on a Saturday Night," *Parents' Magazine*, July 1948, Vol. 23, No. 7, pp. 34-35, 56.

² See Arthur Katona, "Social Theatre," *Theatre Arts*, July 1947, Vol. 31, No. 7, pp. 75-77.

The discussion, which proved to be a stirring educational experience for everybody, came to an end long after the time set and only because the girls had to return to their living quarters.

At Michigan State College, without fanfare and publicity, we set a precedent for interracial drama that we hope other groups will follow. Negroes and whites co-operated every step of the way in staging a social drama program on race prejudice. A Negro and a white girl rewrote the original script, spending several afternoons together converting it into a play about college students. Negroes and whites came together evening after evening to rehearse the play. The rehearsals turned out to be fine social experiences for all of us. We worked and played as comrades in an exciting venture. A Negro and a white led the discussion. And a Negro-white audience attacked the problem wholeheartedly, sharing ideas and experiences in a manner encouraging to anyone concerned with improving race relations.

One may bring social drama to the community and provide a vitally different educational evening for some group or organization. On a recent occasion I took a small cast of students and a faculty member to the Central Methodist Church of Lansing, Michigan and we presented a one-act play on health and marriage to an after-dinner audience. A distinguished physician and for-

mer state commissioner of health acted as forum leader and gave freely of his broad knowledge and experience.

Social drama does not require stage scenery. Ordinary articles of furniture arranged to suit a given situation are enough. Once the dramatic action is under way, and of course if it is convincing, the audience will lose itself in the play and its aroused imagination will take care of the setting. While stage and curtain are definite assets, even they may be dispensed with and the play given at the front of a room or hall.

On the basis of a number of experiences let me suggest some rules regarding a social drama program. First, have a good script: one that is short and emotionally pointed up.⁸ Its dramatic action should speak for itself; it should not preach. A one-act play is preferable. While there will be of necessity lines of exposition, there should be no lecturing or sermonizing. Second, round up an enthusiastic cast and director. They should believe in what they are doing and work cheerily to do a good job. Third, get a dynamic discussion leader, one who gives of himself and at the same time draws out contributions from the whole audience. Fourth, plan the discussion period. The leader or leaders should be prepared with facts and figures with which to help open the discussion, highlight it, and draw it to a conclusion. This is fairly easy to do. For a social drama program on housing, let us say, which incidentally I have staged several times, one may consult *Reader's Guide* for the latest articles on housing and take notes on the articles.

Role-Playing. Here individuals in

⁸ A variety of scripts may be obtained from these organizations: American Theatre Wing, Community Plays, 730 Fifth Avenue, New York 19, New York; Stage for Action, 130 West 42 Street, New York 3, New York; National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York, New York.

free-expression fashion play the parts of personalities involved in problem situations. A very good example is that of a student taking the role of a Negro looking for a job while others take the roles of employers who refuse to hire him. Another may be that of "role-playing" a Jewish student trying to rent a room at local rooming houses. Lines are not memorized; roles are not rehearsed. There may be some planning and preliminary coaching on the part of the instructor, but generally speaking the "performance" is improvised, the actors expressing their parts and lines as the spirit moves them. Now by actively taking the role of the other we learn better to understand that other and ourselves in relation to him.⁴ So, too, the audience, as a class, lecture, or similar group, through vicarious experiencing gains in social understanding.

A wide range of situations and problems may be role-played to educational advantage. I once saw a clinical psychologist demonstrate effective advising techniques to a college faculty by playing the part of advisor while a student enacted the role of advisee. In an educational sociology class of mine every student played the part of a teacher visiting parents of different socio-economic levels. Two students in a marriage class I taught last year role-played a most intriguing courtship situation in

⁴ George Herbert Mead in his *Mind, Self and Society* (Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1935) has said that "Taking the role of the other" is the basic process in the development of the personality.

⁵ This interesting case from real life is found in Willard Waller, *The Family: A Dynamic Interpretation*, New York, The Cordon Co., 1938, pp. 261-262.

which the woman is totally unresponsive and the man completely nonplussed.⁵ To the surprise of the class which expected the conventional hug and kiss, they solved the problem with the clever use of a ring, quotations from poems, and improvised lines.

There is a variant of role-playing that I call "role-playing for keeps," which takes the student outside the classroom into actual life situations. It is essentially social experimentation in which the student plays a part and notes how others behave toward him. By taking the role of an almost-white Negro or of a Jew, for instance, he really comes to know what it means to be a Negro or a Jew in a prejudice-ridden society. This was the method used in the great motion picture on anti-Semitism, "Gentleman's Agreement." An example of student role-playing for keeps is given in the following excerpt from the report of a sociology major who posed as a Negro and tried to rent a room in the community off the campus.

On _____ Street I saw a sign hanging from a post in a yard stating "Rooms for Rent, No Vacancies." Mrs. Z was out on the porch shaking rugs as I went up to inquire about a room. She said there would be several rooms vacant for the summer. Mr. Z handled all the business transactions and would be home shortly. We remarked how nice the weather was.

I asked if she ever had Negro roomers. She fairly shouted "No" and then said, "No, no, we haven't." I said, "I think it best to tell you that I have Negro blood in me. My mother was a mulatto." Mrs. Z spit and sputtered, then recovered her equilibrium and said, "Why to look at you one could never guess it."

We discussed the Negro situation in general. She thought carefully before saying

anything. I think she felt my feelings would be hurt if she spoke out. One of the things she said was, "Personally I haven't got a thing against a colored man. I think they are just as human as we are. You can imagine what my friends and neighbors would say if they heard me talk like this."

At this time Mr. Z drove up and went in the side door, much to my relief. Mrs. Z told me "Wait just a second" and entered the house. A few minutes later Mr. Z came out on the porch and said, "I'm very sorry, but I guess my wife didn't know that I had already rented the rooms out for the summer. I might have a vacancy the fall term."

Sociodrama. In sociodrama the actors represent groups rather than individual personalities. Thus in a race conflict situation one student may play the part of a Southerner, another a Northerner, another a Negro; these parts may be broken down into Liberal Northerner, Prejudiced Northerner, Liberal Southerner, Prejudiced Southerner, Poor White Trash, Educated Negro, Illiterate Negro. In a strike situation the roles may be Striker, Scab, Employer, Policeman, Bystander, Picket, Striker's Wife. Any number of roles representative of groups and cultures in various relationships come to mind: Republican, Democrat, Progressive, Socialist, Communist, Fascist, Catholic, Protestant, Jew, Atheist, Agnostic, Bachelor, Spinster, Divorcee, General, Private, Conscientious Objector, Teacher, Pupil, Fraternity Man, Independent, Grind, Playboy, etc., etc.

Obviously sociodrama overlaps considerably with role-playing. One ends and the other begins in common territory. Role-playing, it may be said, is the generic term, sociodrama being a broad variant of role-playing.

In sociodrama the instructor may lay out a situation involving two or more groups and have students play roles of group members as befitting the given situation. Discussion and analysis by the class will follow.

Script Reading. Here students read a play before the class or lecture group. Each reader, of course, portrays a character in the play. I have found that this form of dramatic presentation is more effective if the reading simulates a radio broadcast. A real or imitation microphone is set up and the actors speak into it.

As with a radio broadcast this program requires a careful going over of lines beforehand and a rehearsal or more so as to have good timing, voice control, and characterization.

Dramatic Recording. Now phonograph records or transcriptions are played to a group and are followed by the usual forum discussion. I recommend that the instructor or moderator introduce the subject of the recording, ask that certain features be noted, and conduct the discussion in the light of these features.

Allow me to quote from a report I gave on the dramatic recording, "In a Thousand Years," a transcription of a Canadian broadcast dealing with the problem of Chinese-white marriage in Canada. The record was played to a number of classes in a marriage course.

I heard the recording given five times to five different student groups. On all occasions attention and interest were at a high level, most students being completely held by the story, though the degree of response varied from group to group.

A greater degree of response occurred

when the instructor in charge briefly and with due dignity introduced the subject matter, asked students to take notes of the progression of steps leading to the breakup of the marriage, explained that the term "wench" has a different meaning in the Canadian context than in our American, and announced that a discussion would follow.

Many students were visibly affected, some girls having tears in their eyes. The general emotional tone was one of deep sympathy. In those sections where the program was not explained beforehand in the manner mentioned above, laughs came every time the word "wench" was uttered, these laughs being in addition to the expected ones at certain laugh lines in the script as, for example, when the divorcee said "There's nothing to it" in counseling a divorce.

When there was time for discussion, students expressed themselves seriously and sympathetically. In my own case as moderator I first asked whether the marriage should have taken place at all. Then I inquired about the steps leading to the separation of the couple. In each group most students approved of the marriage. Students readily noted the three principal stages of marital dissolution, namely, shunning by relatives and friends, eviction from the apartment, and economic pressure in the

¹ In an otherwise excellent paper Leslie D. Zeleny seems to give the impression that socio-drama is the educational saviour. See his "New Directions in Educational Sociology and the Teaching of Sociology," *American Sociological Review*, June 1948, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 336-337.

² I have stressed their importance in "Project-Research: A Survey of Race Relations in a Northern Town," *Journal of Education Sociology*, November 1946, Vol. 20, No. 3, pp. 129-139; "The Campus as a Research Area," *Journal of Higher Education*, February 1948, Vol. 19, No. 2, pp. 93-96; "Undergraduate Social Service and Research in the Community" *Social Education*, May, 1949.

form of rejection of writings of the socialist Chinese husband.

I heartily recommend such dramatic pieces as this, whether radio, stage, recording, reading, or role-playing. It seems to me that we come to close understanding of our fellow-humans through the emotions rather than the intellect, by the heart rather than the head. Social understanding, sympathy, love—these must be felt rather than intellectualized. Here is where the arts may help social education, which, alas, has so far been primarily books and lectures.

III

In summary, drama in education may be put to many uses. It may serve to help orient new students, particularly in colleges and universities. For convocations, assemblies, forums it may point up an issue, throw light on a vital problem. It may bring courses of study, notably in the social sciences, to life. It may facilitate the training of teachers, social workers, personnel workers, researchers, and others whose job brings them intimately close to people. It may help reduce prejudices, misconceptions, fears, anxieties, antisocial attitudes, and the emotional tangles known as complexes.

However, social drama is not an educational panacea.¹ It is an aid. It should supplement, not take the place of real experience. Make-believe, however intriguing, is no substitute for actual living. Such experiential learning as projects, research activities, observation-visits, training on the job, and social service must go on and expand.² Social drama can become an escape from reality, and we must not allow that to take place.

Towers of Ivory

ALFRED R. HEDRICK

Towers of ivory, towers of ivory,
Matchlessly carved—
Wholly unmarred
By moral imperfection—
Towers of purity, towers of purity,
White as Virgin Mary's soul—
On a high green knoll—
They stand in recollection.
And one view gives unto the opal Western sea;
And one each day shows night
Abolished by the morning light,
Triumphantly approaching;
And one view looks into a spacious watered plain,
A garden of delight;
But one discloses sight
Of human life encroaching.

I mounted to these white ephemeral towers,
One time, long, long ago.
(There cooling breezes blow.)
I merely fondly fancied then,
In isolation, drugged, that I could dwell
So very far away
From all Earth's mad mêlée,
Aloof from poignant pains of men.

There pierced one day this upper air
A child's faint cry,
A feeble, plaintive cry;
And down I came again
Into a world where men must daily delve
For needed bread.
My hated, costly dread
Turned benison from bane.

O stern reality, O great reality,
I shall not mount again
My towers of fine disdain
As long as my dear brother
Needs me to work and struggle at his side.
I'll suffer with him now;
I'll laugh when laughter breaks
With Father, Sister, Mother.

We Educate Two Generations at Once

WILLIAM W. WATTENBERG

I

IN THESE days when soaring birth rates are threatening to inundate our elementary school system with a flood of young children, educational leaders are naturally concerned with problems of personnel, facilities and finances. The thought that the situation may be temporary is likely to be greeted with relief, made somewhat wry by the realization that no respite will come in time to parry at least five more years of administrative headaches.

It will seem the height of perversity to suggest that school people should be worried by the fact that over the years the further girls have gone in school the less likely they are to have children. Yet, the facts in the matter are clear, as shown in Table I, drawn from data re-

leased by the Census Bureau in 1947. The Bureau's efficient population experts worked out a method of adjusting fertility statistics for the length of marriages. If we apply these figures to the women of three different generations, still living in 1940, we note an almost constant ratio between college women and those having less than five years of schooling. The more poorly schooled group at each age level had approximately seventy per cent more children, even after making allowance for their longer marriages.

This ratio held true for those girls who were still in their late twenties in 1940. They were the young women who came to adulthood during the depression years. Little difference was found in the ratio of the older group, in their late forties, whose marriages included the period of high birth rates which happened during and after World War I, when the population situation was similar to the current era. Lastly, the same ratio prevailed among women in their seventies. In short, for roughly three generations highly similar differentials have marked the two groups separated by the widest difference in education.

The only surprise in the above figures is the close agreement in the statistical ratios. It has been known for some time that an increase in education is associated with a decrease in fertility. In general, those countries with the highest

TABLE I

Number of Children Ever Born Per One Thousand Women, With Rates Standardized for Duration of Marriage, 1940*

Age in 1940	Amount of Education of Women		Ratio
	Less Than Five Years	At Least One Year of College	
25 to 29	2,747	1,652	1.7:1
45 to 49	4,848	2,762	1.8:1
70 to 74	5,245	3,097	1.7:1

* All items but "ratio" column taken from U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population: Differential Fertility 1940 and 1950: Fertility by Duration of Marriage*. Washington: Government Printing office, 1947. Pp. 29 and 30.

per capita education have the lowest birth rates. Within the United States, the South with its inadequate schools produces relatively more babies than the West, which is better provided with schools. For example, a glance at Table II, taken from figures appearing in another Census Bureau publication, shows that there was in 1940 approximately

Table III we see illustrated the general law: the greater the education, the fewer the children. Among women who did not go beyond elementary school, more than 60 per cent had two or more children, and families of five or more children were more numerous than families with none at all. Among the high school graduates, the majority had fewer

TABLE II
Childlessness Among Married Native-born White Women, 1940*

Region of Birth	Number Reporting	Number Having No Children	Percentage Childless
South	7,323,460	1,331,940	18.2
Northeast	5,974,260	1,354,260	22.7
North Central	8,952,020	1,889,340	21.1
West	1,359,860	336,940	24.8

* U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population: Differential Fertility 1940 and 1940: Women by Number of Children Ever Born*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. 99 and 100.

thirty per cent more childlessness among married, native-born white women in the West than in the South.

Using figures found in the same volume, a rather startling over-all comparison is found. In 1940, there were 663,200 native-born American women who had never attended school. They had had a total of 1,499,020 children. In the same year there were more than twice as many native-born college women; 1,438,460, to be exact. Their children numbered only 1,032,060.

It is not merely at the extremes, but all along the line that education is related in this way to family size. In

than two children, and large families were very few.

What about the present increase in birth rates? What about all those baby buggies one sees GI students pushing on college campuses? Hasn't the situation reversed itself?

The evidence is not all in, and it is possible that a reversal in trends has taken place. However, what data are available indicate that such is not the case. In a very careful analysis of the situation between April, 1940, and June, 1946, the Census Bureau¹ found quite simple explanations for the increases.

Between the two dates, they recorded an increase of 2,800,000 in child population under five years old. It could be traced to the following categories:

¹ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P-20, No. 8, Dec. 31, 1947, "Differential Fertility," June, 1946.

Per cent	Explanation
46	Higher fertility among married women.
26	Greater proportion of women married.
22	Increase in number of women of childbearing age.
6	Reduction in infant mortality.

Added light is thrown on the meaning of these figures when we learn that between 1940 and 1946, the number of families which had children under ten rose by two million, but there was an

harried schoolmen represents only children or the second youngsters in two-child families.

For evidence that most folks plan to stop at that size, all one need do is to inspect any recent housing development. As far as the construction industry is concerned, a two-bedroom house is the standard American home. Incidentally, the second bedroom in such houses is often so tiny that putting two children into it is almost an act of cruelty. Perforce, if they want to live in reasonable

TABLE III
Size of Families Born to Native White Women, 1940, By Amount of Education*

Amount of Education	Number of Children Ever Born					
	None		One		Five or Six	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
None	24,140	10.2	25,200	10.6	42,400	17.9
1-4 years	126,820	10.6	144,660	12.1	210,200	17.6
5 or 6 years	269,280	12.2	320,100	14.8	338,620	15.7
7 or 8 years	1,365,900	16.5	1,675,220	20.2	883,580	10.5
High School 1-3 years	1,054,360	21.9	1,286,800	26.7	304,380	6.3
4 years	1,390,800	29.9	1,367,480	29.4	163,060	3.5
College 1-3 years	444,120	28.3	429,700	27.4	58,600	3.7
4 or more	256,980	34.2	199,480	26.5	18,960	2.5

* *Ibid.*, pp. 141-143.

increase of only 280,000 in families with three or more children. That means, the bulk of the increase in the period consisted of children born to small families. The largest increase in "fertility" was among women over thirty living in urban areas. That is to say, much of the increase which is making problems for

comfort most couples who like children will call it quits after the first or second.

When the war and post-war weddings reduce the number of single folks of marriage age, and the couples complete their small families, we may expect to see not only another drop in the birth rate but that the better educated young

men and women constitute a larger percentage of the unmarried, a larger proportion of the childless, and a smaller proportion of large families.

II

Why should education make so many of its beneficiaries allergic to children? Many people would answer that question with retorts pert. Under present conditions, they would declare, only a sentimental fool would try to raise a large family in a turbulent world. Educated people would have more sense. The arguments as to the difficulties of child-raising in a complicated social setting are so obvious that documentation is hardly necessary. Proponents of small families often cite evidence, such as that in Table IV, in which figures collected by the Crime Prevention Bureau of the Detroit Police Department² show that boys from large families are much more likely to get in trouble than boys from small families.

Arguments as to the merits of family size based on such statistics have a common flaw. As we have seen, the large families are born most frequently to parents with the least education. Therefore, the difficulties that the children have may be a result, not of family size, but of poorly equipped parents.

Moreover, the fact is that the differentials based on education do not result from decisions by high school and col-

lege graduates to avoid huge families so much as from decisions to have none at all or only one child. Therefore, we must look for other motives than a desire to be "fair" to the few children in a small family. The psychologist and the sociologist have little difficulty in noting factors in prevalent educational situations which would lead to the development of values more powerful than logic.

In a study of compositions, Havighurst³ found evidence that during adolescence, boys and girls tended to identify with personalities outside their homes. Definitely to be included among such heroes and heroines are the teachers with whom youngsters come in contact. One result of such psychological identification is a tendency to pattern oneself after the person with whom we identify. In the case of girls we cannot evade the fact that a very large proportion of women teachers in high school and colleges represent life patterns which do not include marriage or children. This situation is not without influence.

A reinforcing influence is exerted by almost all teachers of literature, art, music, and other "cultural" subjects. To the extent that they are successful, such instructors inculcate a pattern of values in which the pursuit of culture cannot but stand in glowing contrast to the comparatively prosaic routines of household chores and "looking after" children. Only in rare cases do high school or college students gain an appreciation of the fact that "culture" can and does express itself in family living.

A further significant fact is that for countless young people education is a

² William W. Wattenberg, *Boys in Trouble*, 1946. Detroit: Crime Prevention Bureau, 1947. Table B—IV—A.

³ Robert J. Havighurst, Myra Z. Robinson, and Mildred Dorr, "The Development of the Ideal Self in Childhood and Adolescence," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 40, pp. 241-257, 1946.

ladder to material success. Devoted parents often make tremendous sacrifices so that their children can get a better education in order to achieve a higher niche in the socio-economic scale. For

new car. The "American way" according to its apostles of the advertising fraternity would be to spend the money now on the car, or some other standard equipment.

TABLE IV
Comparison of Size of Families, in Detroit for Boys in Trouble, 1946,
and General Child Population, 1940

Number of Children in Family	Boys in Trouble, 1946		Children Under 21 Census, 1940		Critical Ratio
	Total	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1	145	8.4	99,300	19.7	17
2	354	20.5	143,640	28.7	9
3	312	18.1	108,360	21.6	4
4	298	17.2	64,400	12.9	5
5	219	12.6	36,600	7.4	7
6 or more	402	23.2	48,700*	9.7*	11

* Estimated.

young men, this betterment translates concretely into white collar, executive or professional positions. For girls, it means positions as teachers or other professionals. Both groups would naturally look upon a large family as depriving them of the fruits of their education and, therefore, a betrayal of their parents' endeavors.

Schools are caught at this point in a current of powerful sociological forces against which they could hardly make headway even if they wished. The most powerful agencies of communication unite in glamorizing a standard of values based on private automobiles, expensive radios, household equipment, fine clothes, extensive tourism, and other delightful ways of parting with money. In practical terms, many a couple has to decide whether to have a baby or a

III

Before considering what schools and colleges might do, it is necessary, as always in educational planning, to set forth objectives. The following paragraphs are tendered as an example of the type of statement on which decisions must be founded. It would be presumptuous to imply that there is a simple answer to the situation. Individuals of differing philosophical and religious beliefs would arrive at various contrasting emphases, although in practice they might not be as far apart as they might believe at first guess.

At the risk of indulging in glittering generalities we may list possible objectives under three main wishes:

1. We would like the girls to become women capable of living balanced lives in which marriage and child-

- rearing could be an integrated part.
2. We would like the boys to become men guided by standards of value in which consideration for wives and children could be included.
 3. We would like to see future citizens reared in families from which they could emerge as loyal and responsible individuals capable of making the most of education in order to build a better world.

Let us look at these rosy objectives a bit more closely. What do they mean? In the case of the girls we can clarify by stating what they do not mean. We do not want them to become mere breeding machines on the model which Hitler sought. Neither do we want them to become so torn between conflicting values that they must lead frustrated lives no matter what path they choose. In positive terms this means they must see how they can express themselves through family living if they decide to get married, or through other types of social living, if they elect to remain single. It is useless to pretend that in our modern world this task is simple. The popularity of serious books, magazine articles, and fictional presentations concerned with the role of women highlights the probability that in all too many cases solutions have proved inadequate. In part the inadequacy can be traced to the fact that solutions which seemed good in early adulthood were revealed by later years to have lacked essential elements.

Family life experts are aware that "the woman question" in all eras is a reflection of masculine attitudes and practices. Male indifference or egocentricity forces women to flounder. Therefore, no program can be complete unless the boys

are helped to develop into the kinds of husbands or co-workers whose attitudes and actions give support to women in their search for desirable life patterns.

Psychologists, psychiatrists and other child guidance experts never tire of tracing personality characteristics to the early years of life when children are completely dependent upon their parents. Before schools can be of influence, crucially significant learning takes place. Therefore, in our objectives we must think not only of how our present charges will work out their own lives but also of the kinds of parents they will make for the next generation. Our ultimate objective, consequently, is to do our utmost to see that children as yet unborn get off to a good start. If they should come into the world unwanted, regarded by their parents as handicaps, the resultant rejection can have serious consequences. Conversely, if their parents want them and look upon them as essential media for an expression of deeply-felt values, they will become the kind of children we shall delight in having in our schools and the kinds of adults this troubled world desperately needs. In this sense, then, as we educate the present generation, we are also influencing greatly the next.

IV

The practical teacher and administrator is probably saying, "This is all very well. But, concretely, what can we do?" Can these objectives be translated into school programs that meet the unbending requirements of reality as expressed in budgets, teaching loads, and personnel shortages?

Already, many individual teachers and many school systems have done a great deal. Programs in family living are a vital part of many secondary school curriculums. Courses on the family are popular on many a college campus. Some pioneering institutions have addressed themselves directly to the problem of giving a well-rounded education to young women, and with notable success. The following considerations are set forth, not as original or novel ideas, but as lessons derived from existing practice and psychological knowledge.

The first principle, as in all education, is that personnel is more influential than the curriculum. To the extent that young people identify with and pattern themselves after teachers, the most lasting influence of an educational institution is the living patterns of the teaching staff. This throws a burden on three groups: (1) the teacher-training institutions which train future teachers; (2) the administrator who selects staff members; and (3) the boards which regulate salary and other conditions which can and do encourage or hamper teachers in living the kind of lives that we should like to see all people enjoy. The problem of personnel is much more than merely hiring more married women teachers; it includes the selection of married men who can serve as pretty good models of fine helpmates. It also requires that remuneration and demands upon the time of both men and women be in harmony with their fulfilling adequately family responsibilities. It assumes equivalent standards of selection and personnel policy for unmarried teachers of both sexes.

A second general consideration is that teaching, especially of the arts, helps students to see how to translate cultural values into day-to-day living. Some courses in art, for example, help students to learn the principles of design and color in terms of furniture selection and room arrangement. Not only is much more of that sort of thing needed, but the same principle extended to include basic considerations in the field of philosophy and human relations. Such teaching need not wait on drastic curriculum revision; in fact, where it has been most successful it has been a product of personal vitality on the part of teachers who were unusually competent and alert to modern developments in their fields. The tragedy is that such instructors are comparatively rare and that too often they get squelched by fellow-teachers or by administrators who feel most comfortable in the presence of more traditional and academically respectable standards.

Vital teaching thrives best in an atmosphere friendly to change and experimentation. Curriculum revision often is a symptom of systems and institutions where the administration enjoys watching students and staff use their own initiative in seeking better solutions to age-old problems.

A third consideration is that students be stimulated to think about their own personal futures in long-range terms. A vast number of secondary schools make provision for such discussion, at least as far as vocational planning goes. Core curriculums or guidance "classes" are the administrative devices most often found at the secondary level. In all but a few

rare colleges, nothing is done. The pity is that youth's personal planning is likely to be in terms of life patterns desired for the vigorous years when they will be in their twenties and thirties. However, in these days of long life expectancy (barring atomic war) a full half of the average person's life will consist of the years when he will be forty, fifty or sixty. No school can teach a zestful adolescent what to do to make his middle age or declining years more vital, but when given a chance young people are more than willing to think in terms of the kind of lives they would like to enjoy during maturity. Among today's adults, including undoubtedly some readers of this article, are many for whom life now is marred by dissatisfactions and frustrations which had their origin in early decisions whose full consequences as they would unfold were never considered.

The danger in such long-range discussions is that at this point teachers may feel duty-bound to give instructions rather than be satisfied to let each individual work out his own problems in his own way. Those teachers who are happily complacent may try to force all young people to adopt the expedients which worked for them. Those whose lives are unsatisfactory may be driven to overstress the "mistakes" which they hold responsible.

The important thing is that such discussions help young people to start evolving personal strategies of living. These necessarily include vocational objectives. Much more significant, however, is thinking which weighs the advantages and disadvantages of various

family patterns and takes into consideration the probable result of future group-living experience with mates and children.

No one can ignore the fact that social conditions may make youth's ideals attainable with great difficulty, if at all. To the extent that the future sees wars, forced migrations, inflations, depressions, and storms of insecurity, the plans now made by youth will be often knocked askew. However, to the extent that young people have such plans, they will have goals for their reactions to such catastrophes. Perhaps more significant, because they have such goals they will be more intelligent as citizens in their reaction to such events. They will be much less likely to be swept into destructive movements typified by blind resentment, frantic grasping at demagogic leaders, and unthinking worship of ideological shibboleths.

A fourth principle is that, however valuable may be consideration of a distant future, young people do their most significant living in the present. Their lives are likely to center around adjustments to their age-mates and to their present home situations. To the psychologist, such present adjustments are highly crucial, because they are the stuff out of which adult personality patterns are formed. For example, a girl who at home must cope with a continually reproachful, self-centered mother may drift into a pattern of selfish self-gratification in which her one altruistic inclination is to spare any children she might have from the resultant tribulations by the simple expedient of seeing that none are born. The psychological clinic of

one large school system reports that its records now show cases where children who came out of poor family situations at the turn of the century are now represented in the file of "problem children" not only by their children but in some cases by their grandchildren as well.

We know that many adolescents are greatly disturbed by weaknesses in their parents' lives. Some are upset by constant quarrelling at home. Others, having witnessed homes split by desertion, separation or divorce, react in various ways. To the extent that such reactions are evaded consciously, they become imbedded in unconscious tendencies which may cause personal havoc. Where the problems are faced consciously and the power of human rationality brought to bear, more intelligent solutions are possible.

Can schools and colleges cope with problems laden with emotional dynamite? The answer is that in core-type courses and family living classes in secondary schools and in psychology and mental hygiene courses at the college level, if the students are given any freedom to raise questions close to their interests, such problems come flooding into class discussions or into conferences with instructors afterwards. Mental hygienists look with interest on such ventilation of personal sore spots. With skillful teachers who have some psychological sophistication, such discussions can be valuable.

As young people face their own personal problems, they will be able better to adjust later to roles as husbands, wives, and parents. They will be able to see how they can manage to get satis-

faction out of these roles. No longer fettered by feelings of inadequacy or scared by unconscious yearnings to punish or destroy, they will be more likely to think of the future in terms of co-operation with other human beings in family groups as well as in occupational and social organizations.

V

In summary, we may say that there is evidence that in many ways current education reinforces attitudes which are evidenced by declining birth rates. Educational institutions, by careful selection and management of personnel, by linking cultural values with family living, by giving youth an opportunity to discuss long-range personal plans, and by providing chances to consider their present personal adjustments, can help young people to work out richer patterns of living. This can lead to happier and more fruitful lives in the present generation. Even more important, it may contribute to getting the next generation off to a better start.

There is one thing that, in the light of present psychological knowledge, schools can not ignore. Never does one generation come to school in isolation. Today's children are what they are partly because of the education their parents received at home, in churches, and in schools.

To-morrow's children are already in school. We cannot see them and we may prefer not to think about them, but they are there nevertheless. But whether or not we ignore them, we are guiding their potential instruction.

Time

WILMA CLARKE MARLER

What is time?

Is time what makes the hands move round
On the gilded, ticking clock?
Is it the spring which spins the universe?
Are the brilliant sun and the shining moon
The face of the eternal clock
And light and dark the hands?
Are the seasons the morning, noon, evening, and night
Of a larger clock than we know?
Perhaps we are each a separate timepiece
With a separate time of our own . . .
And the mainspring of life is carefully wound
By God, our master, before he puts us down
To count the passing of time,
To exult in early strength,
To function in our own little case
Till the shadow of time run out
Obscures our face from the peering faces
Of other time-latched creatures.

A Teacher Morale Survey

PETER D. SHILLAND

I

"IT'S AN ill wind that blows nobody good" is a familiar old saying that has been used to interpret the varying fortunes of different groups affected by similar events. In this case the ill wind of war and its inflationary aftermath has taken its toll of education through either of two channels. There is first the teacher who sought more profitable employment in industry and the failure of the existing remunerative rates to attract adequate replacements in number or kind. Such is the elasticity of demand that characterizes education in the elementary and high school systems of our country. Education cannot afford to compete with the attractive financial returns of industry in this era of inflation.

The ill wind of war and its accompanying drain of manpower into the armed services, together with the added opportunities for employment this meant to those who remained behind, brought some well-needed lessons to industry, not the least of which was the lesson that it was necessary to provide incentives that would keep workers happy and interested in their work as well as proud of their performance. It was not easy for industry to correct situations which injured morale. Nor will it be easy to do the same for school teachers. Financial reward, the principal motivation under an incentive system of a profit economy, is not the only factor of importance. In the building of morale among teachers,

non-financial incentives must and do play a most important part.

The Meaning of Morale

What is the meaning of morale? Beardaley Rumf some years ago used the word "homefulness" to describe "the nature and meaning of the common experience of being at home." And among other things he emphasized that the importance of this concept stemmed not only from a knowledge of the home's physical aspects and its occupants but also, and more especially, from the sense of certainty which this knowledge provided. Webster's dictionary defines morale as a "state of mind . . . with reference to confidence." In other words, morale may be defined as a series of attitudes that influence one toward a given situation with the objective of "being at home," in that situation. And in applying this concept to teachers, the writer was instrumental in drawing up and submitting a list of factors to determine the importance of each in the morale of school teachers of a northern West Virginia County School System.

II

The Survey

No claim is made to the incorporation of all factors which might be said to influence the morale of teachers. In fact, in this day of democracy and industrial jurisprudence, one noteworthy omission is apparent, i.e., participation with

the administrative authorities in the formulation of school policies or the solution of school problems. But inasmuch as an effort was made to avoid personal accusations against those few responsible for the handling of such policies, this factor was purposely omitted. It is mentioned here for the benefit of school authorities as admittedly a factor of primary consideration in any survey of school teacher morale. Aside from this, the survey consisted of a check list to which a stamped, addressed envelope was clipped and distributed to all teachers, as follows:

This is a survey of the _____ County Schools, conducted by students in Personnel Management, Extension Division, West Virginia University, with the approval of your Superintendent. You are asked not to identify yourself beyond giving us the following information:

Age _____ Sex _____

Instructions: Below is a list of thirty (30) factors we believe may influence you in your work for better or for worse. Go down the list carefully and select the ten (10) most important factors. In terms of their importance to you, label the ten (10) factors in numerical order from one (1) to ten (10) in the space to the left. The interest of this survey is purely impersonal. We encourage sincerity of response.

1. — Consideration and courtesy by superiors.
2. — Physical working conditions.
3. — Freedom from favoritism and discrimination.
4. — Doing work in which I have an avocational interest (extracurricular activity).
5. — Adequacy of equipment and supplies.

6. — Freedom to go to superiors for counselling.
7. — Five-day week.
8. — Administrative co-operation and assistance.
9. — Job security (as compared with other occupations).
10. — Outlet for tenderness and affection.
11. — Being told how I'm doing in my work.
12. — Friendly attitude of fellow teachers.
13. — Being told plans and results to add interest to my work.
14. — Total hours worked per day.
15. — Doing work for which I am prepared and in which I am interested.
16. — Advancement on merit.
17. — Development of personality in associating with and inspiring young people.
18. — Community recognition of my work (social importance of education).
19. — Retirement pension.
20. — Fair compensation.
21. — Increasing competence in one's work.
22. — Pupil's attitude of respect toward teaching.
23. — Location preferences in teaching assignment.
24. — Opportunity for rendering service (Christian ideal).
25. — Escape from some less desirable form of work.
26. — Special benefits (sick leave).
27. — Leaves of absence.
28. — Freedom from anxiety (encouragement to initiative).
29. — Encouragement salarywise to broaden knowledge (i.e., through extension courses).
30. — Equal pay for equal work (equal distribution of work load).

(Note: Hereinafter the above list of factors will be referred to as the "Check List".)

Results

Of four hundred twenty-nine check lists and addressed envelopes distributed, the following were the results:

Total Co-operators: 216. Sex: Male, 65 (30.1%). Female, 151 (69.9%).

Age Group: Under 40 Years, 118 (54.6%). 40 Years and Over, 98 (45.4%).

TABLE I
The Ten Most Important Factors

	All Teachers ¹		(Sex)				(Age)			
			Male		Female		Under 40		40 and Over	
	Factor*	Per Cent	Factor*	Per Cent	Factor*	Per Cent	Factor*	Per Cent	Factor*	Per Cent
(1)	15	11.6	14	10.6	15	11.9	15	12.0	15	11.7
(2)	5	7.7	20	7.5	5	8.1	5	8.4	2	7.3
(3)	1	6.8	5	7.3	1	6.8	1	7.1	5	6.8
(4)	2	6.4	1	7.1	2	6.6	9	5.8	1	6.4
(5)	9	5.4	9	7.0	12	5.4	8	5.7	8	5.4
(6)	8	5.3	8	6.4	8	5.1	2	5.6	9	5.1
(7)	12	5.2	2	5.9	9	4.7	12	5.2	12	4.9
(8)	20	5.1	16	5.2	17	4.2	20	5.2	17	4.4
(9)	17	4.4	17	4.7	6	4.0	17	4.1	3	4.3
(10)	22	3.4	12	4.6	20	3.7	22	3.9	19	3.7

* See numerical list of factors in "Check List" on preceding page.

Method of Analysis and Weighting

A simple frequency tally was taken of the occurrence of every factor cited in the check list as it was selected among the ten most important factors. The factors thus selected in the order of importance from first to tenth were weighted in reverse by multiplying by ten the frequency of selection of each factor for the position of first importance, by multiplying by nine the frequency of selection of each factor for the position of second importance and so on down to the tenth factor of importance, which was given a weight of one. In this manner, recognition was given not only to the frequency with which each factor was selected among the ten most important, but also to the frequency with which it occurred nearest the first order of importance. Merely frequency of selec-

tion of one factor otherwise might mean it came close to being the first factor, let us say, in the second order of importance, but lost by two or three tallies to some other factor for second position. The latter might not have been mentioned with equal frequency as a factor of importance for any other position while the importance of the former might show with equal frequency in the third, fourth, or sixth position. Thus, when weighted, the importance of each factor reflects its frequency of occurrence as well as its position in the ordering of importance from first to tenth.

III

Some Interpretations of the Results

All Teachers—Table I clearly reveals that factor number fifteen, "Doing work for which I am prepared and in which I am interested," is decidedly the first most important influence affecting teachers in their work, irrespective of sex or

¹ This item refers to the total valid returns of which there were 216. About twenty returns were invalid because the sex or age classification was not indicated.

age. Next in order is "Adequacy of equipment and supplies," factor number five. For industry this factor has been known to develop loyalty among trained workers, but the same is not often realized as a factor influencing the morale of teachers. "Consideration and courtesy by superiors," factor number one, is rated third in importance. It is sometimes said that supervision looks too often to the mechanics of a situation, as well as the methods involved. Supervision can profit by taking in the personal touch as indicated by the high-ranking importance of this factor.

"Physical working conditions," factor number two, in fourth position, has much to commend itself in the teaching field even though improvement in morale can be dealt with on a less expensive plane than the cost of affording the best of physical working conditions. Yet, it should be noted that this factor appears second in importance among the "40 and over" age group. Apparently the older teachers do not relish the idea of ageing along with the physical plant. Good maintenance practices here would serve a two-fold purpose—to preserve the state of mind of older teachers and their usefulness together with the extended usefulness of the buildings.

"Job security (as compared with other occupations)," factor number nine, is, of course, a reflection of the alleged sacrifices that teachers make otherwise in the interests of securing a reward based on stability. If job security characterizes the teaching profession, teachers consider it an important factor in their work. The absence of other rewards makes this a

vital consideration. "Administrative co-operation and assistance," factor number eight, and "Friendly attitude of fellow teachers," factor number twelve, are sixth and seventh respectively. The latter represents an expression of "belongingness" which people desire in their work, while the former reflects the feeling of being a necessary part and being looked after.

Factor number twenty, "Fair compensation," is eighth in importance but it appears second in importance for male teachers and tenth for females. Undoubtedly this is a reflection of the family responsibility angle and the fact that women are more concerned with factors other than financial reward. "Development of personality in associating with and inspiring young people," is the ninth factor of importance. It should be noted that the first nine factors are also cited by the other groups, i.e., sex and age. The only one among the first ten important factors displaced by the sex or age group is number twenty-two, "Pupil's attitude of respect toward teaching."

Sex—"Advancement on merit," factor number sixteen, appears eighth in importance for male teachers in Table I. This is attributed to the fact that principalships are usually filled from the ranks of male teachers in this county, as is the case in most school systems. The male teachers also thought less of "Physical working conditions" and the "Friendly attitude of fellow teachers," factors two and twelve, which appear in seventh and tenth positions respectively.

The listing of factors by the female

teachers is important by reason of the reversal of factors twelve, eight, and nine, as compared with nine, eight, and twelve for all teachers. Apparently the "Friendly attitude of fellow teachers," factor number twelve, is more important to the female teacher than the element of "Job security," factor number nine. The females also cited "Freedom to go to superiors for counselling," factor number six, in ninth position as more important than factor number twenty-two, "Pupil's attitude of respect toward teachers."

Age—In comparing the age groups, three factors stand out in Table I. Factor number nineteen, "Retirement Pension," and factor number three, "Freedom from favoritism and discrimination," are listed in ninth and tenth position respectively by those "40 and over." The former is easily reckoned with on the basis that these are the people most likely to be thinking of retirement. "Freedom from favoritism and discrimination," probably arises from two sources. First, in connection with "Advancement on merit," factor number sixteen, which was eighth in the listings for male teachers. Second, there is the practice of giving the "nod of recognition" to the newcomer, and expecting that the older teacher doesn't need such encouragement.

The other outstanding treatment of factors by the age groups is in reference to factor number twenty, "Fair compensation." This appears fifth for those "40 and over," equal in importance to factor number eight, "Administrative cooperation and assistance." For those "under 40" it is ranked eighth. The system in

West Virginia of automatic salary increases on the basis of the possession of degrees up to the sixteenth year of service for those with an M.A. is not doing justice to the teachers with longer experience. Hence, the reason for the selection of factor twenty by those "40 and over." Length of service beyond the sixteenth year should receive some recognition as a factor influencing morale. The number of principalships is not sufficient to care for all who service the educational needs of the community during their lifetime.

Mention should also be made of the fact that the "under 40" age group contains the same listing of factors as for "all teachers." This is the only group that did not displace factor number twenty-two, "Pupil's attitude of respect toward teaching."

IV

Factors Other Than the Ten Most Important

In Table II the treatment of all the factors other than the ten most important is also helpful in discerning differences between the sex and age groups. For example, the female teachers attached more importance to such factors as number eleven, "Being told how I'm doing in my work," and number thirteen, "Being told plans and results to add interest to my work," than did the male teachers. "Special benefits (sick leave)," factor number twenty-six, and "Location preferences in teaching assignments," factor number twenty-three, were also given more attention by fe-

TABLE II
All Factors by Per Cent

Factors	All Teachers	(Sex)		(Age)	
		Male	Female	Under 40	40 and Over
1	6.8	7.1	6.8	7.1	6.4
2	6.4	5.9	6.6	5.6	7.3
3	3.3	4.5	3.0	3.1	4.3
4	1.8	1.6	1.4	2.1	1.1
5	7.7	7.3	8.1	8.4	6.8
6	3.3	2.1	4.0	3.3	3.4
7	1.5	0.3	1.9	1.6	1.3
8	5.3	6.4	5.1	5.7	5.4
9	5.4	7.0	4.7	5.8	5.1
10	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.6
11	2.4	1.3	2.8	2.3	2.1
12	5.2	4.6	5.4	5.2	4.9
13	2.2	1.2	2.6	1.9	2.3
14	0.7	1.2	0.3	0.8	0.5
15	11.6	10.5	11.9	12.0	11.7
16	3.0	5.2	3.0	2.9	3.0
17	4.4	4.7	4.2	4.1	4.4
18	1.9	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.8
19	3.1	3.0	3.2	2.4	3.7
20	5.1	7.5	3.7	4.2	5.4
21	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.2	2.5
22	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.9	3.2
23	1.8	0.7	2.3	1.8	1.9
24	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.6	3.1
25	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.2
26	3.1	1.6	3.6	2.8	2.3
27	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.1	0.6
28	1.2	1.6	0.9	0.9	1.6
29	1.1	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.0
30	1.8	1.5	2.0	1.8	2.1

male teachers. The male teachers, on the other hand, thought more of factor number twenty-eight, "Freedom from anxiety (encouragement to initiative)," than did the female teachers.

For the age group factor number four, "Doing work in which I have an avocational interest (extra-curricular activity)," was preferred more by those teachers under forty years of age. Perhaps this is because the younger teacher had not as yet found his real avocational interest. In this county school system, the story is told of how one of the old male teachers finally found his avocational interest in teaching children how to drive in the school safe-driving pro-

gram. He enjoys this work to the nth degree. "Opportunity for rendering service (christian ideal)," factor number twenty-four, appears more prominently in importance among teachers forty years of age and over than among the group under forty.

The factors which received little recognition were: "Outlet for tenderness and affection," number ten, "Escape from some less desirable form of work," number twenty-five, and "leaves of absence," number twenty-seven. Leaves of absence are not provided without some special reason and then the only convenience they afford is such as to have little appeal to grade school teachers.

Some Conclusions and Implications

Factors fifteen and seventeen, "Doing work for which I am prepared and in which I am interested," and "Development of personality in associating with and inspiring young people," have sustained the test of time as influences affecting the attitude of teachers in their work. But what has happened to such time-honored factors as, "Community recognition of my work (social importance of education)," "Opportunity for rendering service (christian ideal)," and "Encouragement salarewise to broaden knowledge (i.e., through extension courses)," numbers eighteen, twenty-four, and twenty-nine in the survey? Have they lost their appeal? Occasionally, too, teaching used to strike an attractive note when one would read about the retirement of a grade school teacher after many years of renowned service. "Retirement pension," factor number nineteen, served its own purpose, and this used to be worthy of some consideration. But where does it stand today as an item of importance to the grade school teacher?

One does not have to seek long for an answer to this last question. Industry is now recruiting the educated youth of our land among other things on the strength of attractive retirement plans. "You pay 3 per cent of your salary up to \$150 per year and the company contributes 3 per cent. Any time you leave

* The writer was in charge of placement service for the Department of Economics and Business Administration, West Virginia University, and knows the extent to which this phase of employment is expounded by recruiting personnel visiting the campus.

us you get back your contribution with interest at 3 per cent compounded annually. After sixty-five you retire on —. This is in addition to your social security old-age pension."* Compare this combination with existing teacher retirement plans which have not been revised in some communities since the day they were instituted many odd years ago. "Retirement pension" was rated tenth in importance by the "40 and over" age group only.

The social importance of education used to be prominent in its own way as a mighty tie that bound the teacher and the community in recognition of his work. Teachers have come to realize, however, that they obtain recognition mostly when the parents come in to find out what's wrong with their son or daughter. An occasional session of the P.T.A. with the teachers will also uncover some distraught parents seeking to obtain some information from teachers as to what they can do about bringing up their children in the right way. Beyond this, community recognition ceases to function in a way that reflects the social importance of education to the teacher. Today, school administrators are obliged to devote a good portion of their time planning to interest the community in its schools.

Opportunity for rendering service, the Christian ideal, does not have much to offer in this day and age where there is the important challenge of making both ends meet on a fixed income in the face of rising living costs and increasing income to other wage earners. Industry has induced not a few teachers to change

their minds. And this applies with equal force to any encouragement salary-wise to broaden the teachers' knowledge through extension courses. They are satisfied, willing, and capable of getting their M.A.'s, but to spend more time and money on further education is not worth the extra five dollars per month additional salary for advanced degrees.

The reader may be somewhat chagrined at the treatment of the Christian ideal on a monetary plane. But the writer is forced to the conclusion that teaching has lost its appeal largely in the failure of the community to maintain it properly in the scale of values. Where once it was shocking to lose an experienced teacher because the community would feel that loss, today this considera-

tion is reserved for the coach and the band leader. The demand for their services is inelastic. For the rest, the community has come to respond in the same way as to any good with an elastic demand. The Christian ideal becomes tainted with worldly misgivings—they also serve who collect tickets at football games. Teachers seldom any more experience full satisfaction in their work as a service to the community under this modern emphasis to community well-being—a champion football team or a band that is "tops."

In short, school administrators would do well to modify their approach to some of the generally accepted principles allegedly influencing teachers. The tempo of the times requires a change of venue.

... It is of great importance that the general public be given an opportunity to experience—consciously and intelligently—the efforts and results of scientific research. It is not sufficient that each result be taken up, elaborated, and applied by a few hundred specialists in the field. Restricting the body of knowledge to a small group deadens the philosophical spirit of a people and leads to spiritual poverty.—

ALBERT EINSTEIN

A University for Nigeria, West Africa

KENNETH MELLANBY

NIGERIA, in tropical West Africa, is the largest and most populous Colony in the British Commonwealth. In area it is about four times the size of Britain, or nearly one-and-a-half times as large as the State of Texas. Its population has not been accurately counted, but is probably not far short of 30 millions. Most of the inhabitants live by agriculture, and the country is still in the usually accepted sense "backward," although in many areas there is an indigenous culture of considerable antiquity, and much so-called "primitive" African art is now realized to have a quality exceeding most of the products of the "civilized" world. But if Nigeria is to take its place in the modern world, its educational system must be vastly extended. A system which, at its best, fitted the people to live as peasant farmers, and which, at its worst, subjected them to despotism and slavery, cannot compete with modern industrial civilization.

Schools, as we understand them in Britain and America, have existed in Nigeria for over 100 years. The pioneers in the educational field were the Christian missions, which continue to take a leading part, but in recent years the Central Government, the local native administration and also the large Moslem community have opened their own schools, and the mission schools also now draw a considerable fraction of their funds from Government sources. Edu-

cation has developed most rapidly in South Nigeria, where in certain areas elementary education for boys is very nearly universal, though female education is less widespread and is almost non-existent in the greater part of Northern Nigeria. Secondary ("High School") education lags behind, and only about 10,000 boys and girls attend secondary schools. The problem of educating the people of Nigeria is even greater than its numbers may suggest. Having a rapidly growing population, it contains a preponderance of children, so the school age group is probably larger than that of Britain, notwithstanding the larger total population of the latter country.

Many movements have had an effect on raising the standards of education in Nigeria, although the problem is so immense that the results have been limited. Since World War II ambitious new schemes have been launched, and these are beginning to have results. It is hoped that universal primary education will not be long delayed, and more and more secondary schools are coming into being. In spite of the great difficulty of obtaining qualified staffs (few people were trained in Britain during World War II when the universities and training colleges were practically closed, and the number of African graduate teachers is still only a tiny fraction of what is needed) the standards of these schools are being steadily raised. The important

thing now is that there should be adequate facilities to give the greatest opportunities to the boys and girls when they leave these secondary schools and wish to continue their education.

Need for Technicians

There have been several previous developments in the field of higher education in Nigeria. One of the most urgent requirements of the country is for technicians, and training schools run by the agricultural, veterinary and medical departments have been opened to fill this need. The results have been valuable and have succeeded in bridging a difficult gap in the country's development, but we have now reached a stage when something different is needed. The departmental schools mentioned only produced partly qualified people who were considered to be "inferior" to graduates of colleges and universities overseas. For a good many years Nigerians have gone to Britain or to the United States, to attend universities. Many of them have shown that they are capable of competing on equal terms with the other undergraduates, but for economic reasons only a very small proportion could afford this type of education, in spite of the numerous scholarships which are now awarded. A university in any country is adapted to local requirements, and graduates who return to Nigeria from overseas often find that their instruction is not entirely suited to equip them for their future work. Also, at present, universities in Britain are overcrowded and unable to admit many students from abroad. For these

reasons and, most important of all, so that it may serve as a focus for the intellectual life of the country, it has been decided to found a real university in Nigeria itself.

In 1943 Britain's Government appointed a commission "to report on the organization of the existing facilities of higher education in West Africa, and to make recommendations regarding future university development in that area." The chairman was Mr. Walter Elliot, M.P., and the body was commonly called the Elliot Commission; its members comprised authorities on university education and on African problems, including Mr. Julian Huxley (now Secretary General of U.N.E.S.C.O.). Three West Africans were included for the first time as full members of a body concerned with the future of their own homeland. The most important recommendation endorsed by the whole commission was that a university should be established at Ibadan in Nigeria.

In a vast country like Nigeria, with its diverse races, it was a difficult task to select a suitable site, but most people agree that Ibadan was a wise choice. The largest city in Central Africa, with a population approaching half a million, it is a center of African culture in a way in which the seaport capital Lagos could never be.

Temporary Buildings

The University College opened in January 1948. At present we are occupying temporary buildings which during World War II, served as a military hospital. This housed our first entry of

students, which included 102 men and three girls. These temporary buildings serve as laboratories, for which they are quite well suited, lecture rooms, common rooms, offices and residential accommodation for students and staff.

Our students nearly all come from Nigeria, but we expect a substantial number in the future from the other West African territories of the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone and the Gambia. We expect the proportion of women undergraduates to increase as more girls' schools grow up in the country. In October 1948 our student body numbered 200, including 143 freshmen and we hope that it will grow to five or six hundred in the next five years.

College life in temporary quarters presents many difficulties. Our university will be entirely residential, and all our present undergraduates live in the college. We are aware of the shortcomings of the accommodation, and make every attempt to provide better facilities, but our undergraduates know that they are pioneers and must therefore be prepared to submit to some discomfort. Each student either has his own study-bedroom or shares a larger room with another, and all meals are taken in the dining-hall. There are difficulties in feeding a community drawn from many races, each with its particular dietary likes and prejudices, but a compromise is reached in which dishes from various regions are included as well as certain "European" foods.

Our students are all Africans. At present most of our staff come from Britain. In October, 1948, there will be

about 30 members, most with teaching and research experience in universities in Britain, Canada, the United States and India. At least six of these will be West Africans, all trained overseas. In recruiting our staff we are trying to maintain the highest standard, and to discourage firmly the idea that "anything is good enough for Africa." Staff of all nationalities are of course employed on equal terms.

Our present faculties are arts, science and medicine. Our students are proceeding to the Bachelors' degrees of the University of London, in order to ensure that a proper standard is maintained and that our graduates will be accepted in all parts of the world. Later, when the college is more firmly established, it will confer its own degrees. Other undergraduate and postgraduate courses, for instance in agriculture, will soon be inaugurated.

Splendid Site

While we occupy our temporary quarters, steps are being taken to ensure a speedy transfer to a more worthy home. We have acquired a splendid site of nearly five square miles on the outskirts of Ibadan, and our architects, Mr. Maxwell Fry and Miss Jane Drew, are busy drawing up the plans. They are designing halls of residence on a plan which will be a contemporary version of the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge Universities. There will also be a fine library, laboratories, research institutes and a large teaching hospital for the medical school. The large area is needed for future development, for the

university will grow rapidly, and for the experimental farms of our projected agricultural institute.

Our college draws its funds mainly from government sources, but it is not a government institution. The capital funds will mostly derive from a grant made by Britain's Government. The current expenses come from endowments (started by a capital gift from the Nigerian Government) and an annual block grant from the same source, in addition to the rather small income from students' fees, but the college will be completely autonomous, governed by its own council. The council will include several Africans selected by the Legislative Council of Nigeria, some members

of the academic staff, and representatives of universities in Britain.

At present the University College of Nigeria is a small institution. I am convinced, however, that it will grow rapidly, and take an increasingly important part in the development of Nigeria. As the years pass, it will become predominantly West African, and will no doubt develop in accordance with the culture of the country. We, who come from outside West Africa, intend to try to help the growing university in such a way as to ensure that it will rapidly become an independent center of learning, able to stand on its own feet and acknowledged as an equal by universities in all parts of the world.

Without cooperation between the hearts of men, there will never be peaceful agreement between the people. . . . Against the loneliness of today there stands Unesco. Unesco would be nothing if it were satisfied to be an international centre for debate and rhetoric. Unesco is the citadel of men without uniform, of those who long to know, not the specious justification for the slaughter of their fellows, but why they should live together in mutual understanding.

Peace among men will be no more than a mirage, coming and going, unless we strive for its building on the foundation of respect for all the rights of human personality. So far, all we have seen has been truces between the combatants. For centuries, civilization has lived from war to war, with here and there a stagnant parenthesis of an armistice. Unesco aspires to a better peace, a peace not signed with blood on the field of battle, a peace which shall be made—slowly perhaps, but surely—by truth and virtue in the hearts and consciences of men.—M. TORRES BODET, Director-General of Unesco.

Book Reviews

NOTE: *Reviews not signed have been written by the editor.*

ART

THE UNFOLDING OF ARTISTIC ACTIVITY
by Henry Schaefer-Simmern, University
of California Press, 201 pp. \$5.00.

A book on creativity in art which goes beyond mere agreement with modern educational philosophy and into the realm of demonstrated fact is all too rare. Leaders in art education, therefore, will welcome *The Unfolding of Artistic Activity*, a report of the procedures and results of an experiment conducted by Henry Schaefer-Simmern under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation.

The theory underlying the experiment stresses the primary importance of the unadulterated creative process. The goal is the natural cultivation of growing mental powers as they operate simultaneously with in the process of visual conception of artistic form.

The experiment was conducted with four small groups: one composed of mentally defective girls and young women, another of delinquent boys, a third of refugees, and a fourth made up of business men and women. The author, through the analysis and description of the experiences of his students, enables us to trace their evolution and growth in artistic creativity. We are shown how students advance and regress, why transition stages sometimes exemplify minor conflicts, and how the student achieves further progress through his own critical study of his previous attainments. While the work of those of limited intelligence is somewhat restricted, and the products of those higher on the intelligence scale give more esthetic satisfaction, there

is, nevertheless, a basic pattern of organization and development which is of more importance than minor differences in achievement. The results of the experiment were highly gratifying from the standpoint of art production among the delinquent and subnormal as well as among the refugees and business people; but of greater importance still are the psychological and social implications. The true importance of creative art activity becomes manifest when, as in this experiment, a subnormal girl learns to organize her thinking to the point of engaging in everyday activities heretofore thought impossible, when delinquent boys develop an interest in wholesome activity as well as an unselfish concern in each other's problems, and when the average adult can engage in activity which leads to a fuller and more satisfying existence.

The author states that in unfolding inherent artistic abilities the broadest implications can ultimately be attained only if credit and acclaim are no longer given predominantly to the artistic performance of talented persons. Art education that recognizes artistic activity as a general attribute of human nature and aims at the unfolding and developing of every man's latent creative abilities will contribute its share to the great task which faces all of us, the resurrection of a humanized world.

The thesis which Dr. Schaefer-Simmern propounds is of vital importance to general as well as art educators. Unfortunately, its technical language may reduce its reading audience to specialists in the field.

MARTHA R. CARTER
Indiana University

BIOGRAPHY

PHILANDER PRIESTLY CLAXTON by Charles Lee Lewis. The University of Tennessee Press. 369 pp. \$3.50.

This is a lively account of a boy who was born in a log cabin in Tennessee in 1862, spent his youth in the hard and tragic era of Congressional Reconstruction—that robbed the South of what war had spared and also ran its guilty fingers deep into the pockets of posterity—but who through hard work and unflagging devotion to a noble cause rose against heavy odds to a high place in teaching and educational administration. The book is more than a biography of an effective educational leader; it is an important chapter in the history of American education and especially of education in the South during the latter part of the past and the early years of the present century.

Almost anyone, except the most fortunate, born in the Southern States during the last four decades of the past century was likely to have a hard time in getting a formal education. As late as 1900 educational facilities in that region were not as good as these had been in 1860. Claxton and most of his contemporaries had to take what they could get in schooling and this was not much. For him at the age of four it was successively the old Shearin Schoolhouse, a mile and a half from his home; then school in a Lutheran church building taught by the local minister; then "Yallar Cat School," so-called from a mulatto who had lived in the cabin; then "Shanghai near Poplin's Cross Roads" and a bit further away; then in the "Corner of Nowhere," as the children called it, a sort of moving school such as was found in New England in the colonial period; and most of the surroundings in all of these schools were depressingly primitive. In most cases the room was only 18 by 20 feet in size, with no ceiling or glass windows, the floor not nailed down, heated in winter by a

fireplace, backless seats made of split logs, a male teacher with pupils ranging ages from four to twenty-one and above but with Noah Webster's *Old Blue Backed Speller*, William McGuffey's *Reader*, Smith's *English Grammar*, Davies' *Elementary Arithmetic*, "singing" geography, severe discipline, spelling bees and on Friday afternoons "exhibitions" in which pupils read original compositions of essays and poems or recited selections from examinations. Claxton, whose parents were ambitious for their son to have an education, then attended Turrentine Academy, type of institution for which Tennessee early became and has long remained well known, a two-teacher, ten months' institution in which a Presbyterian preacher-teacher, who was brought up on Da Page's *Theory and Practice of Teaching*, a Methodist preacher-teacher and the graduate of the Nashville institution which later developed into George Peabody College for Teachers in three and half years prepared "Philie" for the University of Tennessee where through severe thoroughness he had a very studious and successful career. Chapter II of the book gives an interesting account of college practices while Claxton was an undergraduate—methods of teaching, length of written examinations, cheating or "slipping" and the requirement that the student swear before the examination that at its date he would not lie in making pledge that did not give or receive aid in the test.

The book was written from a large amount of sources, including miscellaneous memoranda in the private papers of Claxton—now at the age of eighty—President-emeritus of Austin Peay State College in his native state—stenographic notes of conversations between him and the author and much material which late Charles W. Dabney had access to in preparing his two-volume *Universal Education in the South* (The University

North Carolina Press, 1936) which gives attention to the work of Claxton in the educational awakening in the Southern States toward the end of the past and during the early years of the present century. The bulk of the book deals with Claxton's giving up his plans for studying law and deciding to go into educational work, under the influence of Edward P. Moses and Edwin A. Alderman; his work as teacher and educational administrator in North Carolina; as professor of "pedagogics" in the North Carolina State Normal and Industrial School; as head of the department of education in his alma mater as student in European universities and of European education; as right-hand man to President Dabney of the University of Tennessee in the significant work of the Summer Session of the South; as educational journalist; as campaigner for public education in the Southern States and later for that cause throughout the country; for a decade as United States Commissioner of Education; as Provost of the University of Alabama; as Superintendent of the Tulsa, Oklahoma, Schools; and his last official work, as President of the Austin Peay State College in Tennessee.

Besides the work of Claxton the book tells of many interesting developments in American education: the Conference for Education in the South, the Southern Education Board, the General Education Board, the National Education Association, National Citizens' Conference on Education, Peabody Education Fund, educational journalism; and in the book may be found helpful material on prominent figures of the time, including Edwin A. Alderman, Edward P. Moses, Herbert B. Adams, Charles W. Dabney, J. L. M. Curry, Franklin K. Lane, Walter Hines Page, Wickliffe Rose, Robert C. Ogden, George Foster Peabody, and others.

EDGAR W. KNIGHT

The University of North Carolina

JOURNALISM,

JOURNALISM AND THE SCHOOL PAPER by DeWitt C. Reddick. D. C. Heath & Co. 410 pp. \$2.40.

Revising a text such as this one (which since 1938 has been one of a small number suitable for its field) always presents special problems. For, as Professor Reddick points out, "high school journalism is coming of age."

With its literary magazines, newspapers, handbooks, press bureaus, radio stations—and now television—it is a dynamic and influential activity! Yet, scholastic journalism always has had a dearth of adequately-trained teachers, proper publishing facilities, and ample rewards and work-rosters for both staff members and advisers. Hence the vital need for completely-written texts to guide students and teachers.

This revised edition has six new chapters, each eminently useful to advisers who have been aware of changing educational processes as well as further professional advances in the general field of newspaper journalism. Its content now includes a condensed history of American press evolution, development of reader interest, picture editing, public opinion polls, special makeup problems, printing contracts, model staff organization, and a bibliography.

"Journalism and the School Paper" has many examples from high school publications—some of them national contest winners. Emphasizing that this is a distinctive field of education and institutional journalistic training, Professor Reddick also has noted its social aspects. Though the text is based on the newspaper (with or without a formal journalism class) it does not overlook the values and interest in the type of creative writing that is more often found in school literary journals.

Especially strong are chapters on feature writing, assignments, and news-beat procedure, headlines, makeup, and copyreading. The section on typography, while some-

what simplified, nevertheless seems sufficiently detailed and technical to enable the boys and girls of Grades 9-12 to learn how to improve their publication's appearance and readability.

Each chapter ends with a short set of work-jobs for the student to use if the text is to become more than another of the references on the shelves of the editorial office. Yet, it definitely would enhance the value of this book if the bibliography had been scattered throughout it, each chapter carrying a few specific enrichment readings from other proven texts in journalism. Too often general bibliographies hidden in the back of a book are overlooked by both teacher and student.

No school paper can exist without its supporting business department. Its circulation must be extensive, its advertising vital, fresh, and attractive, and its financial budget so well balanced it can pay its bills and, if possible, break with a small profit from year to year. This is not a handbook on all aspects of business management, but the author has extended and rebuilt his two helpful chapters on advertising and circulation.

Humor columns are discussed with many examples, but what about the "gossip" or "personal dirt" column that still plagues the student press in some schools? Apparently fearing to promote this source of libel and editorial (and adviser!) headaches by the power of suggestion, the author dismisses it with hardly more than a single paragraph. Perhaps that is enough. Says he:

"In preparing the names column, great care should be taken to avoid holding a person up to ridicule or in some other way hurting the feelings of a sensitive student. Though gossip of affairs of the heart will likely excite comment among student readers, it may just as readily bring painful embarrassment to more timid students. In general such material should be avoided."

The chapter on sports reporting seems too sketchy, and the great help staff members and advisers get from state and national

critical contests is totally ignored. Weak, indeed, would be the achievements and influence of the smug school group that never read the journals or entered the competitions of the Quill & Scroll Journalism Society, National Scholastic Press Association, or Columbia Scholastic Press Association. The CSPA this year is celebrating its 25th year of inspiration and leadership in the field of school journalism. Yet it gets not even a mention of its official magazine, the School Press Review, in the bibliography! Perhaps these omissions will be among the author's special tasks when the book comes up for its fourth revision.

An estimate? Professor Reddick's work is a sound, readable, generally thorough, and adaptable high school text. He is sympathetic and understands some of the more acute difficulties in publishing this educational and public relations medium. Both teachers and students will like it. It will help those youngsters, too, who may be pondering a career in newspaper work. Finally, the revision keeps this book well toward the top as one of the texts to consider for the high school journalism course.

JOSEPH C. CARTER
Temple University



EDUCATION

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Harper and Brothers. 375 pp. \$3.75.

Here is presented the six complete reports of the President's Commission on Higher Education combined in one publication. Each report is labeled as a separate Volume with Volume Six being tables of the various data from which the conclusions and recommendations of the previous five volumes were derived. These tables of data, although rapidly going out of date, furnish invaluable information to administrators of institutions of higher education.

These dynamic reports may prove to be as revolutionary in the field of higher education as was the Report of the Committee of Ten in the field of secondary education. The reports are filled with forthright recommendations that will provoke sharp, and to be hoped, helpful discussions and should lead to action that will cause the report to become a landmark in the history of higher education in America.

The topics of the report are in themselves provocative of attention. Education for a Better Nation and a Better World, Toward a Fuller Realization of Democracy, Toward International Understanding and Cooperation, Toward the Solution of Social Problems, Education for All, Barriers to Equal Opportunity, Education for Free Men, are but a few of the topics about which are made stirring proposals. No person connected with the administration of a college or university should omit a careful reading and study of these thorough analyses of the purposes and the future roles of institutions of higher education from the point of view of public policy.

If the proposals of these reports are adopted colleges will depart from their tendency to be cloistered, ivory towers. That "Effective democratic education will deal directly with current problems" receives special emphasis. It is suggested that education's most important role "is to serve as an instrument of social transition" and that the responsibilities of education might be "defined in terms of the kind of civilization society hopes to build."

These reports carefully point out that education is not merely a private matter. Colleges are under obligations to inspire their graduates with high social aims as well as to furnish them information and technical skill. "Teaching and learning must be invested with public purpose."

Education is an instrument toward international understanding and cooperation but there is the danger of trying to foster democracy abroad by insisting on the Ameri-

can way as the only democratic way. Education is an instrument for fostering peace through international understanding. Peace must be founded on the universal recognition of the rights of the common man.

Somehow the gap between scientific know-how and personal and social wisdom must be bridged. It is a peculiar responsibility of the colleges to train personnel and to inaugurate research in social science and social technology.

There is a definite need for the education of many more at the college level. This will mean the provision of programs for the education of those abilities which are not involved particularly in academic aptitudes. There needs to be free and universal access to higher education. It is suggested that at least 49 percent of the population should have the opportunity for junior college education and at least 32 percent have an advanced liberal or specialized professional education.

All America might well adopt the Commission's statement of the purpose of education "to find a way of life, a good way of life, and at its best the best way of life—best for the individual and best for society."

A. M. PROCTOR
Duke University

■■■

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION, Revised Edition, by Rupert C. Lodge. Harper and Bros. 350 pp. \$3.00.

In the original edition of this book, published in 1937, Professor Lodge advanced the proposition that philosophical thinking in education is of three kinds: realism, idealism, and pragmatism. The basis for this assumption is the fact that philosophy itself, in a fundamental sense, breaks down into these three types of thought. The validity of the proposition may be debated by philosophers; but since Professor Lodge is himself a philosopher of standing, we

educators may accept his statement on its face value. We are drawn favorably to his position, likewise, by his sensible acknowledgement that these ways of thought are not exclusive categories. It is recognized that we may, and often do, combine and interchange the basic principles as well as the methodologies of the three systems.

The revised edition is built upon the same premises. Indeed, the revised edition duplicates the original edition almost word for word until we come to the last chapter, except that some slight changes have been made in the account of pragmatism.

The book exemplifies the persistent endeavor of educational "philosophers" to identify their kinds of philosophy with traditional systems or with the pragmatism of Peirce, James, Dewey, *et al.* To the present reviewer it has seemed that this effort at identification has been a source of error and weakness. One might hope that creative educational thought would prefer to steer its own course independently of all traditional systems. When the educational thinker feels the necessity of adhering to some brand of idealism or realism, or of clinging to the precepts of pragmatism, he is giving priority to a matter of secondary importance; that is to say, he is putting first that which is subsidiary and possesses only an academic interest. The matter of prime importance is the practical problem before him and its solution.

Professor Lodge's book is meritorious in its clear exposition of the three philosophical paths. It is a work of art in its representation of the idealist, the realist, and the pragmatist as each, in his own way, attacks an educational problem. For the student this arrangement provides a pleasant and not unprofitable philosophical exercise.

It is this preoccupation with typical systems which makes the book as applicable today as it was ten years previously. For the same reason the book is remote from the hot and imperative issues of the present. In a time of peace and goodwill—if

there ever can be such—we may perhaps be allowed indulgence in the intellectual pastime which this book affords. But in a world of tensions, rivalries, and confusions, where educators especially want direction and understanding, it would seem that philosophy of education should offer a more rugged diet.

Chapter XX, the last chapter of this revised edition, deals with "Social Education"—a topic which does not appear in the earlier edition. Following familiar lines, this chapter presents an excellent but brief account of the problems of educating youth for moral social living. These problems include urbanization and industrialization, the lessened influence of the church, the changing status of the family, the increasing load of responsibility placed upon the schools, parent education, the function of lay organizations and youth groups, and a consideration of educative techniques.

While this is a sound and interesting chapter, we cannot but observe that it lacks the "punch" of contemporaneous facts and developments. It is pre-war, as is shown by the date lines of its various footnotes.

In spite of this reviewer's critical observations, he must finally remark that this book is a unique and stimulating approach to the subject of educational philosophy. In the hands of a liberal teacher with a fine aptitude for timely application, who at the same time puts educational problems above "philosophies," the book can be made an effective vehicle of instruction.

P. F. VALENTINE
San Francisco State College



PSYCHOLOGY

PLAY THERAPY by Virginia Mae Axline,
The Houghton Mifflin Company. 374
pp. \$4.50.

One of the most crucial problems of education is the relation between the scientific specialist and the teacher of children.

Somehow they must work in harmony with each other instead of running counter to the natural tendencies of childhood. With transparent clarity, Miss Axline bridges the gap between the therapist and the teacher and sets down the eight basic principles of play therapy which she has explored under the supervision of Dr. Carl R. Rogers, of the University of Chicago, in the non-directive therapeutic technique. She defines this technique which has so impressed specialists with its tremendous possibilities:

Non-directive therapy is based upon the assumption that the individual has within himself, not only the ability to solve his own problems satisfactorily but also this growth impulse that makes mature behavior more satisfying than immature behavior. [It] grants the individual the permissiveness to be himself; it accepts that self completely, without evaluation or pressure to change; it recognizes and clarifies the expressed emotionalized attitudes by a reflection of what the client has expressed; and, by the very process of non-directive therapy, it offers the individual the opportunity to be himself, to learn to know himself, to chart his own course openly and aboveboard. . . . so that he may form a more satisfactory design for living. (P. 15-16)

The author points out the inadequacy of the term "non-directive" when applied to the rôle of the client, in that the primary emphasis is placed upon his own active participation in this growth experience. The term, however, does accurately describe the rôle of the counselor, in that he maintains sufficient self-discipline to restrain any impulses which he might have to take over the client's responsibility.

In examining the basic principles, formulated in Part Three of this book, which guide the therapist in all non-directive therapeutic contacts, this reviewer is impressed with the fact that these same principles should guide also the teacher of children—to wit: developing a warm, friendly relationship with the child; accepting the child completely; recognizing the feelings the child is expressing to gain insight into his behavior; maintaining respect for the child's ability to solve his own prob-

lems if given an opportunity; abiding by the law of readiness; and so on. The author is not content with mere generalized statements, however, but he has been most generous in giving specific instances and illustrations of *how to do it* and of the way the attitudes and principles may be implemented in the play contacts. She sees play therapy as "a method of helping problem children help themselves." Play unquestionably has many functions. It is an expression of the child's mental life, in that it is his way of learning and experimenting with his environment. Imaginative play may serve as an escape from reality—a means of vicarious experience. But no matter what the form of his play, through it the child gains experiences and does the thinking that he applies to problem-solving. His insights grow out of his knowledge and experience gained through play. The child's play will reveal to alert teachers, as they do to therapists, his genuine concerns and interests, his deep-felt needs and problems, his bitter hatreds, his outgoing affections, his desire to will and grow. When the non-directive, or self-directive techniques are applied to the treatment of children, the results are extremely significant. As Miss Axline points out:

If a little child, rejected, insecure, without love, without a feeling of belongingness, can meet this challenge to realize more fully the capacity within himself . . . and can show more positive signs of more mature and responsible behavior, then educators and social workers and industrialists might find it profitable to re-examine the adequacies of their contributions to the development of the individual to reciprocate by making a contribution for the improvement of all human relationships. Here, too, the individual's responsibility to others is in direct proportion to the amount of freedom that is entrusted to him. (P. 29)

That this viewpoint is consistent with the best principles of modern schools one needs but to examine a recent study by a group of curriculum experts who conclude that "social values are achieved through a curriculum which has the potentialities,

needs, and maturities of children and youth at its core." This final challenge to the curriculum worker calls for "a curriculum that is developed to meet present needs in such a way as to build bases for sound choice and action in the future, to build the needed urge to use these bases for action in the major areas of life."^{*}

Miss Axline's informative little volume contains a wealth of verbatim case material and shows us children as they really are—seen from "the inside"—their needs, their potentialities, their achievements when freed for growth toward maturity. It should be read thoughtfully by all prospective teachers, experienced teachers, administrators, and all others interested in the development of the individual toward human relationships. The people who are closely associated with the schools today know that the primary need for the successful education of children is sound mental health for all participants in the educational process. In Part Four of the volume the implications of the principles to educators is specifically pointed out, first, in its practical schoolroom applications and the obligation of the teacher to enrich the child's life far beyond the academic requirements. Its second implication is applied to Parent-Teacher relationships and a plea for the same acceptance of parents and a reflection of the attitudes and feelings they express plus an opportunity freely to express themselves. Finally there comes the application of the principles to Teacher-Administrator relationships and the request for a democratic procedure in school administration to insure each person in the school system a sense of adequacy and fulfillment by helping to shape the policies and procedures of the school and feeling a personal responsibility for them. Obligations are carried out much

more effectively when there is maintained a mutual respect and togetherness of efforts and all participants strive to achieve unity of purpose. And school would become a very different institution if teachers were freed and encouraged to deal with children and their parents with the understanding delineated so vividly in this book.

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THE THIRD MENTAL MEASUREMENTS
YEARBOOK, Oscar Krisen Buros, editor.
Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick,
New Jersey. 1047 pp. \$12.50.

This ponderous and monumental volume is a definitive volume on tests and their uses. It is the sixth in a series which began in 1935. The first two annual volumes, published in 1935 and 1936 respectively, were bibliographic only. The third in the series (1937) had critical excerpts also. In 1938 the fourth volume included original reviews of publications and tests. The fifth, immediately preceding the present volume, "The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook" (1941), was planned much like the volume under review. Attention is called to the former volumes because the present publication is meant "to supplement, not to supplant" earlier books in the series. Originally it had been planned to publish a volume every two years, but war conditions prevented.

The present volume serves the expert in testing and the practitioner in testing much as an unabridged dictionary serves the general reader and writer. It covers all commercially available tests—educational, psychological and vocational—published during the years, 1940-1947, inclusive. In it are found original reviews of 633 tests, 713 original reviews by 320 reviewers, and 3,368 references to literature on tests. The numbers are quoted to indicate the stupendous undertaking assumed by the editor.

* Stratemeyer, F. B., Forkner, H. L., and McKim, M. G. *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*, P. 67. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

Elaborate information is given regarding each test. Included are the title, age groups for which the test is designed, the date of copyright or publication, its adaptability to machine scoring, whether an individual or group test, the cost, the time needed for administration, the author, the publisher, test references, original test reviews written specifically for this volume at the invitation of the editor, excerpts from former reviews published elsewhere, and cross references to earlier reviews.

The reviews of tests are written by well-known persons: for example, tests of intelligence by Cyril Burt, Kuder, Wechsler, Lorge, R. L. Thorndike and Garrett; character and personality tests by Watson and Symonds; and reading tests by McKim, Gray, Witty and Wrightstone.

The entries are classified, there are excerpts from books published elsewhere and also cross references. There is a periodical

directory index, a publishers directory and index, and index as of titles and names.

The binding is sturdy buckram. It can stand the hard usage which the volume ought to have. Though large in size, it is well proportioned and manageable.

It is published by The Institute of Mental Measurements of Rutgers University through the Rutgers University Press. The creation of this Institute enabled the editor to give full time to the preparation of the volume. The University is to be congratulated on this important project.

The price may seem high. However, attention is drawn to the fact that it is justifiable, even when the volume is used as a textbook, as it may be kept for permanent reference afterwards. One cannot see how a teacher of courses in tests and measurements will want to be without it. Using it will increase his effectiveness and save countless hours of time.

Taste does not come by chance or nature; it is a long and laborious business to acquire it. It is the lowest style only of the arts, whether of painting, poetry or music that may be said in the vulgar sense to be naturally pleasing.—SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS

Brief Browsing in Books

Arithmetic Teaching Techniques is an in-service study which has been prepared by the Department of Elementary Education of the Chicago Public Schools, with the co-operation of the District Superintendents, Principals and Teachers in the Chicago Public Elementary Schools. The authorship of the manual is divided among 1,145 classroom teachers, 325 principals, nine district superintendents, and the Committee on Arithmetic Teaching Techniques. In the 337 pages are 349 successful techniques in addition to a study of the nature of problem-solving. The book has seven chapters devoted to these techniques classified into categories and grade levels. A Table of Contents assists the teacher to refer to particular difficulties. In the seven chapters are the following: vocabulary difficulties, mechanics of reading difficulties, arithmetical difficulties, teaching difficulties, textbook difficulties, problem analysis and reasoning difficulties.

The study may be ordered from the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, Herold C. Hunt, General Superintendent. The price is \$1.25.

The Commission on the English Curriculum has recently published an outline of the desirable outcomes and experiences in the language arts which will be illustrated in the curriculum study of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Equality of Opportunity in College Admissions, published by the University of the State of New York, quotes the law in the Education Practices Act and explains its working. The place of institutions maintained by religious groups is also clearly set forth.

The Ethics of Ambiguity, written by Madame Simone de Beauvoir, a distin-

guished French writer, sets forth the principles of existentialism. The relationship of this philosophy to others is clearly shown, and each is criticized. The volume is published by The Philosophical Library, 15 East 40 Street, New York 16, New York. The price for the 159-page book is \$3.00. The ethical problem is a foremost one in philosophical writing at the present time, and Madame de Beauvoir's volume deeply penetrates the ethical problem of modern man. While her work complements that of Jean-Paul Sartre it is independent of it. Whether or not one agrees with the conclusions set forth this is stimulating reading. Particularly is one interested in the problem of freedom as it is here set forth.

The American Council on Education has published (February 16, 1949) a pamphlet, "Wanted 30,000 Instructors for Community Colleges," by a committee under the chairmanship of Karl W. Bigelow. The 52-page monograph indicates the need for instructors, their qualifications, an analysis of the job in this division of the educational field, as well as such topics as adult education, counseling, curriculum-building, general education, terminal education, vocational-technical education, and indications where training and experience may be found. The price is \$1.00.

Geographic Approaches to Social Education is the subject of the 1948 yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Edited by Clyde F. Kohn, of Northwestern University, with contributors from many institutions, this is a most useful book. A survey of the six parts indicates its scope. First, there is a section on general goals and philosophy. Next is a statement of specific objectives, including conservation and vocational guidance in

the field. An important section describes tools for the achievement of goals. Among these are reading materials, globes, maps, still pictures, motion pictures, statistics, the home community, and source materials.

Part Four has three chapters which give the implications for the elementary curriculum including geographic instruction for the primary grades, geographic instruction in the intermediate and upper grades, and illustrations of learning experiences which lead to the development of a geographic point of view. Part Five similarly develops the implications for the secondary curriculum. Here emphasis is placed upon a suggested course in the geography of nations, another course in world or global geography, and a third, the treatment of geographic knowledge and understanding in history courses, with special reference to American history. Another chapter explains how geographic understandings may be treated in core curriculums.

The final section develops geography in the teacher education program.

The yearbook sells for \$2.50 bound in paper, for \$3.00 in the cloth edition. It may be secured from The National Council for the Social Studies, 1261 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Prospects for Democracy in Japan by T. A. Bisson sets forth the development of social, political and economic life in Japan under the regime directed by General MacArthur. In this Institute of Pacific Relations book are chapters on the problems faced by the occupation authorities, pre-election developments, background and results of the second election, reform measures of the Katayama cabinet, the economic struggle, and recent trends in the occupation policy. Questions are raised as to whether or not democracy will be preserved after the American occupation has ceased. The volume published by The Macmillan Company has 133 pages and is priced at \$2.75.

Paths to the Present by Arthur M.

Schleisinger, connects history with the present day. It is an interpretation of problems of the present in the light of their historical backgrounds. National traits are found in the question, "What then is the American, this new man?" A chapter on "Biography of a Nation of Joiners" is enlightening as is another on the "Role of the Immigrant." Another chapter recalls a yardstick for presidents recently given wide publicity in a national magazine. There are two chapters on the persisting problems of the presidency of the United States. Three chapters on "War and Peace" indicate America's stake in "one world" and in peace. "The City in American Civilization" is revealing, as is another, "Food in the Making of America." The latter is of utmost importance just now when the Director General of Unesco is calling the attention of the governments of the world to the problem of the world's food, believing it one of the greatest of our time. A final chapter has for its heading "Casting the National Horoscope." The college edition of the book sells for \$3.00. It has 302 pages. Twenty-five pages of suggestions for further reading are valuable.

Decadence is the unusual title of a new philosophical inquiry by C. E. M. Joad, Head of the Department of Psychology and Philosophy at Birkbeck College, University of London. In it he evaluates and examines the meaning of the word "decadent" as it applies to art, literature, music, human character, ethics, architecture, society, and other phases of life. He examines in detail the present status of each of these in modern life. In his examination he discusses humanism, communism, democracy, free will, evolution, science, psychoanalysis, ethics and subjectivism. A proponent of what is usually called traditional philosophy, he summarizes the factors which are hostile to a philosophy of ends rather than merely of means. The idealist will find confirmation for many of his

views, the realist or pragmatist will see attacks on his position. The volume of 424 pages sells for \$4.75. It is published by the Philosophical Library, 15 East 40th Street, New York City 16.

The Africa of Albert Schweitzer, told in text and pictures by two recent visitors to his forest hospital, Charles R. Joy and Melvin Arnold, is a volume of information and charm. Almost half of the book, unfortunately unpaged, consists of illustrations. Both of the narrators are editors. They have written this volume not only to inform but also to call attention to a remarkable contribution to African life which has been made by this philosopher-theologian, musician-physician, who will likely retire this year after 36 years as a physician at Lambarene. The endpapers present a map of the grounds and buildings in the forest hospital. The final essay by Dr. Schweitzer gives wise observations on the colonial policy and presents difficulties which many overlook in dealing with heretofore subject peoples. The book is published by Harper and Brothers and by The Beacon Press. It is listed at \$3.75.

American School Buildings is the twenty-seventh yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. It is distributed to members from the headquarters of the Association, Washington, D.C., and sells to other than members at \$4.00. In its 353 pages aside from the list of members one finds expert advice on all phases of the school building. It should be exceedingly important to school executives just now when so many are, or soon will be, faced with providing additional classroom space and facilities for enlarged educational programs. The chairman of the Commission on American School Buildings which prepared the Yearbook is Warren T. White, Superintendent of the Dallas, Texas, Schools. Other members of the Committee are superintendents of schools, professors of school administration, architects and officers in planning divisions.

Living Literature for Oral Interpretation, recently published by the Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., is edited by Moires Compere, of the Department of Speech, Dramatics, and Radio Education of Michigan State College. Mrs. Compere believes that all literature should have life as its main ingredient. Because all real life experience must be limited, man must learn to read and secure his knowledge second-hand, if he is to live deeply. "Oral reading is one of the methods which develop ability to hunt for the living encased in words," writes Mrs. Compere. Here she compiles material selected from many areas and brings together in a single volume a rich source-book for the teacher of public speaking or the person who gives interpretative readings in public.

After an introduction which gives wise counsel on selection, cutting and adaptation for oral interpretation, there are selections from narrative prose (17); fantasy (9); essays—factual and facetious (8); Christmas—prose and poetry (10); poetry and laughter (17); and poetry (25). All total there are 86 selections. There is a wide range primarily from newer authors such as Lillian E. Smith, William Saroyan, Roark Bradford, Sgt. Marion Hargrove, Heywood Broun, James Thurber, Carl Sandburg, Langston Hughes, Steven Vincent Benet, Ogden Nash, and A. P. Herbert. The selections of fifty-five authors are included. The price of the book (446 pages) is \$3.00.

Janet Agnes Kelley, of the School of Education, City College of New York has written *College Life and the Mores*. It is published by The Bureau of Publications of Teachers College, Columbia University at \$3.75. The volume of 292 pages is of particular interest to personnel workers, administrators, teachers and students. It has grown out of the author's experience both in public school and in college. She found college life has a society of its own. It is this society which she analyzes and

describes. Her data are from a study of literature in the field of anthropology and sociology, personal experience, and discussions with sociologists and personnel workers. Various surveys were made using college catalogs, handbooks, yearbooks, and newspapers covering a period of twenty years. For a six months' period an analysis was made of current social behavior on college campuses in twenty colleges of the United States through weekly and daily newspapers. Literature and research on college life were also studied. It is not within the scope of this brief notice to detail the conclusions at which Dr. Kelley has arrived. The broader phases of this problem are set forth as well as much specific information in individual cases. There are good chapter bibliographies and an appendix explaining in detail the technique of the study.

Helping Handicapped Children in School is a timely publication by Edward W. Dolch of the University of Illinois. It is published by The Garrard Press, Champaign, Illinois. It is a bird's-eye picture of the situation where it is stated, twenty per cent of all school children are handicapped. Eleven chapters cover the whole area of the handicapped. Sample topics are: hearing defects, sight handicaps, speech defects, and the emotionally handicapped. There are 342 pages. The price is \$4.00.

The More Perfect Union exhibits a program for control of inter-group discrimination in the United States. It is written by R. M. MacIver, Professor of Political Philosophy and Sociology at Columbia University. Here is a scholarly presentation of *prejudice*, with its resulting *discrimination* which denies equality of opportunity. It is shown how discrimination exists on the economic, political and educational fronts. Practical suggestions are given showing how it may be fought in schools, churches, courts, unions, in the press and by radio. The book is published by the Macmillan Company.

Max Lerner has collected his most significant editorial writings chiefly from PM in which current problems are discussed. The subtitle is *Notes on the Multiple Revolution of our Time*. The essays are collected under striking headings. The first section consists of notes on ethics and culture; the second, on economics and politics; and a third, on America among the powers. The liberal point of views is taken throughout. There are two hundred of these "pieces," as he calls them, several with four or five subheads. Among them are such significant subjects as religious freedom, "The Professor as Political Eunuch," "The Seven Deadly Press Sins," "The Ethics of the Dust," and peacetime military training. There are pen portraits of President Truman, Henry Wallace, Earl Browder, Brandeis, Goebbels, Byrnes, Trotsky and Lilienthal. The sketches are confined to the years between 1944 and 1948. Simon and Schuster, Inc., publishes the book which has 369 pages and sells for \$3.50.

"How are the minority groups treated in the textbooks used in American schools?" "Do these textbooks teach understanding—or prejudice?" "Are they fair?" These are some of the questions which are discussed and answered in *Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials* published by the American Council on Education. This is the report of the Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials in Intergroup Relations. In its 231 pages this volume clearly sets forth the premise that the individual worth of the individual citizen is the cardinal tenet of the American philosophy of democracy. An analysis of textbooks used in our schools shows that those currently used, largely unintentionally, tend to create stereotypes unfavorable to minority groups. Abundant examples are given. There are sections which describe the ethnic, racial and religious groups, and the group tensions which exist. This is a most illuminating and valuable study. The list price is \$3.00.

THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM

Behind the By-Lines

(Continued from page 588)

conductor of the University Symphony Orchestra. He is the author of "Fugue and Form" and "On the Limits of Music." He has prepared editions of Salamone Rossi's *Sinfonia a Tre Voci* and *Canzoni a Quattro*. He is a member of the American Musicological Society.

Isabelle Levi wrote *The Evolution of a Radio Broadcast* as the result of her experience as Chairman of the Department of Social Studies, Woodward High School, Cincinnati. She is the principal author of "American Problems," a course of study for Cincinnati high schools. She has now retired and concerns herself with writing.

Social Drama in Education is a contribution by Arthur Katona, Assistant Professor in the Department of Effective Living, Michigan State College, East Lansing. His rather unusual article has resulted from his activities on the campus and in the community in social drama, social recreation, the arts, Red Cross, and similar extra-curricular phases of living. He says "My wife is the actual artist of the family." However, Dr. Katona has written "The Teaching of Sociology in a Democracy," "Social Art; A Community Approach, and Community Services and the Negro." These have appeared in various sociological magazines.

William W. Wattenberg, Associate Professor of Education and Educational Psychology, Wayne University, is the author of *We Educate Two Generations at Once*. He is the co-ordinator of two large courses, "Education for Mental Health," and "Mental Health in the Home," being given cooperatively by the Departments of Education and Psychiatry at Wayne University and the University of Michigan. Among his publications are "Boys in Trouble, 1946," and "On the Educational Front." He is co-editor of "Americans All: Studies in Intercultural Education," and of "Teachers for Democracy."

A Teacher Morale Survey is by Pro-

fessor Peter D. Shilland, of the Department of Economics in the College of Business Administration, Butler University, Indianapolis. Dr. Shilland was formerly associated with the departments of economics at Hunter College (New York City), the University of Illinois, The Ohio State University, and West Virginia University. He has contributed to the *American Economic Review* and *Industrial Relations and Labor Review*.

A University for Nigeria, West Africa, is illustrative of what is being done in higher education in one of the smaller African countries. It is written by Kenneth Mel lanby, O.B.E., Ph.D., Sc.D., who was educated at Cambridge University, and is now principal of this new college.

The poetry for this issue includes authors new to THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM, as well as some who have been regular contributors. Jacob C. Solovay, who wrote *Commencement Address* teaches English at the Fort Hamilton High School, Brooklyn, New York. He is currently working on a book of light verse on educational and related topics. *Summer Day (A Metrical Experiment)*, using new experimental techniques, has been contributed by Richard L. Loughlin. He teaches speech in John Adams High School, New York City.

Gladys Vondy Robertson has been a regular contributor for several years. Her poem in this issue, *Caldron*, is found in her characteristic style of writing. *Towers of Ivory* comes from Alfred R. Hedrick, of Lewis and Clark College and Multnomah College, Portland, Oregon. He has written articles and verse for a number of magazines, including *The Educational Review*. *Time* comes from a senior in Oklahoma A and M College, Stillwater, Oklahoma, Wilma Clarke Marler. She is a member of Lambda Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi.

The Editor

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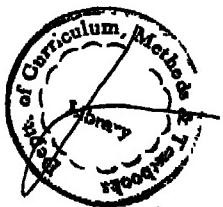
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The
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May, 1949

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Volume XIII

PART 2

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FROM THE GENERAL OFFICE
MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL
THE ANNUAL DINNER
THE HONOR KEY
IN MEMORIAM
NEWLY-ELECTED MEMBERS OF THE
LAUREATE CHAPTER
THE UNITED STATES NATIONAL COMMISSION
FOR UNESCO
THE CHAPTERS REPORT
CHAPTER PROGRAMS
BETA IOTA'S INTERNATIONAL PROGRAM
DIVERGENT OPINIONS AND SOCIAL COOPERATION
J. B. Shouse

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From the Executive President

MANY times this year have I wondered how much follow-up there has been of the oft repeated concern expressed at last year's Convocation for identifying Kappa Delta Pi with international educational affairs. Again this year two hundred subscriptions to THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM have been sent educational leaders scattered throughout the world. My immediate interest in this brief message is with what the local chapters have been doing. May I suggest some of the many possibilities?

The Commission for International Education Reconstruction is recognized by UNESCO as the coordinating agency for voluntary efforts directed toward the end the name suggests. Write CIER, 744 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. for bulletin material or assistance in developing a project.

The Advisory Committee on Cultural and Educational Relations with Occupied Countries maintains offices at the same address. As the name suggests it is concerned with those countries not as yet members of UNESCO. The Committee will send free upon request Occupied

Countries News Notes.

UNESCO is of course the chief channel of international cooperation for our profession. It was my privilege early in April, as a representative of KΔΠ, to attend along with some three thousand others the National Commission of UNESCO three day session in Cleveland. While there I was constantly reminded of the interests manifested at our Convocation in Atlantic City. You will recall that our annual lecturer last year, Howard Wilson, is a member of the Executive Committee of the National Commission. Certainly every chapter of KΔΠ should devote at least one program a year to some aspect of the work of UNESCO. Write UNESCO Relations Staff, Department of State, Washington, for the pamphlet *Some Answers to Your Questions*, a Resource List, a list of many challenging opportunities for chapters.

And then, do not overlook program and practical aid possibilities to be found among the foreign students on your own campuses.

The field is rich, and yours but for the taking.

WM. MCKINLEY ROBINSON
April 11, 1949

From the General Office

IT is urged again that members who change their place of residence notify the General Office so that THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM may come to them promptly. All members should understand that the regulations of the postal authorities do not permit forwarding of magazines except on the notification of the subscriber and payment of the postage which is due. Changes of address should be sent promptly. We often receive complaints that the magazine is not being received, when our investigation shows that the address which we use is that to which the member wishes copies sent. Perhaps it is an institutional address where mail is not delivered efficiently. Sometimes the copy is not delivered to the address on the wrapper. It is urged that investigation be made locally, before writing the General Office.

It is gratifying to know that the articles in THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM receive wide circulation. Authors rather generally purchase reprints. An order for 1,000 copies of the article by Dr. George Stoddard in the March EDUCATIONAL FORUM has been received from the Los Angeles Schools; one for 5,000 copies has been received from another source for the article by Mark Starr.

The typewriters in the General Office have been in constant use since before the war. Authorization was given by The Executive Council to exchange these for new models on advantageous terms. Provision was also made for purchasing new equipment for filing stencils used in mailing the magazine.

With increasing numbers of initiations and with enlarged subscription lists for THE FORUM, it is now necessary to secure additional clerical help; as amount of help needed increases in direct proportion to the enlarged size of the lists. The Society con-

tinues to grow in membership and interest.

A contract has been entered into by the Executive President on behalf of the Society with President George D. Stoddard, of the University of Illinois, to deliver the twenty-second annual address in the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. This will be given before the dinner arranged in connection with the next Convocation and, according to custom, will be printed in extended form in the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series of volumes printed for the Society by The Macmillan Company.

The maintenance and preservation of our democracy is of the utmost importance. Additional articles are being planned on this general theme for next year. Arrangements are nearing completion for other articles on vital educational issues of the day. Specific announcements will be made in November. In this connection students and faculty members who are members of Kappa Delta Pi are invited to submit materials for publication in THE FORUM.

The Recorder-Treasurer sometimes wonders whether the members of the Society are aware of the immense amount of work which is performed gratuitously by members of The Executive Council. Not only in official meetings but almost continuously between meetings the individual members are giving of their time and talent to the promotion of the Society. It is this conscientious devotion to the affairs of Kappa Delta Pi which has made and is making the Society great.

Members of the Society will be pleased to know that Dr. McCracken, Executive President Emeritus, was able to attend the meeting of the editorial board in New York last fall as well as the two meetings of the Executive Council held last summer and this spring, and has been able to participate actively in the meetings.

Meeting of the Executive Council

SESSIONS began on Monday morning, March 28, with Executive President, William McKinley Robinson, in the chair. As usual there were numerous items which needed attention, and the meetings continued, with a break for the annual dinner, until the wee hours of Wednesday morning. The various members of the Executive Council reported on the duties and projects of their respective offices.

There was prolonged discussion of the proposed regional conferences. Much attention was given to the conditions under which the proposed research awards provided for by the last Convocation shall be given. A sample of the honor key submitted by Burr, Patterson & Auld Co., the official jewelers, was approved and plans were made to provide for presenting it to those approved by the Executive Council.

New contracts with The Macmillan Company were approved for publishing the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series, and with the George Banta Publishing Company for printing THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM. The scale of prices for printing the latter was revised upward due to higher labor scales and increased cost of paper.

It was reported that a larger number of copies of each issue of THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM had been necessary; due to larger initiations and subscriptions, especially renewals. A list of 200 persons abroad who are receiving complimentary copies of THE FORUM as a gift of the Society was sub-

mitted. This is in accordance with the plan to present subscriptions to prominent educators in foreign countries adopted by the Convocation. Many letters of acknowledgment have been received.

Petitions from groups for establishing new chapters were considered. In several instances these were approved.

Forms were distributed for use in connection with administering the William Chandler Bagley Teacher Exchange providing for interchange between teachers of school systems in the United States. Those interested may receive information by addressing the Executive Second Vice President, Frank L. Wright, Washington University, or the Recorder-Treasurer at Heidelberg College.

The Recorder-Treasurer was authorized to engage Ernst and Ernst as certified public accountants to make an audit of the books of the Society for the biennium ending January 31, 1950.

By action of the Executive Council the first award of the honor key under the new plan adopted was made to Dean Irma Voigt, of Ohio University, who was a charter member of Alpha Chapter at the University of Illinois.

A committee was appointed to determine the time and place for holding the next Convocation of the Society. The financial arrangements for the attendance of delegates and alternates approximate those in effect at the last Convocation.

THE CHASE

*The bright dreams of my youth vanished;
My hopes faded, one after the other.
Now I stand at the side of the road
And tell the pursuing posse of my soul,
"They went that a-way!"*

HAL O. KESLER

DINNER OF KAPPA DELTA PI
THE BELLEVUE-STRAITFORD, PHILADELPHIA, MARCH 29, 1949



The Annual Dinner

ON March 29 the annual dinner was held in the beautiful Rose Garden of the Bellevue-Stratford in Philadelphia. Judged by standards of recent years the attendance was not large, due primarily to the fact that the meetings of the AASA were held in three regions.

Executive President William McKinley Robinson presided effectively. Music was furnished by student members of Kappa Delta Pi. Robert Eicher of New Jersey State Teachers College, Trenton, New Jersey, played two violin solos for which he was accompanied by Mary Hamilton. Both are members of the local chapter of Kappa Delta Pi. Marion Wolfinger, of Beaver College, sang contralto solos, accompanied by Ada May Morris, also members of Kappa Delta Pi. The musical selections were well given and enthusiastically received.

The feature of the evening was the address, "The Changing Role of Higher Education," given by Oliver C. Carmichael, President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. He was introduced in charming fashion by the Executive First Vice President, Dr. Katherine Vickery, who served as a member of the teaching staff at Alabama College while Dr. Carmichael was president of that

institution. He spoke informally and effectively, in gracious manner, giving a succinct and clear survey of the changes which have taken place in American education, during the last half century. At the close of the dinner he autographed copies of his book of the same title for those who purchased copies. The volume is the twenty-first in the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. It is published and distributed by The Macmillan Company and sells for \$1.75.

Mrs. Carmichael, Mrs. Perry, and Mrs. Wright were guests of the Society. Other dinner guests included presidents, deans, counselors, faculty members, and school executives as well as students.

The acceptances of four newly-elected members of the Laureate Chapter were announced, as noted elsewhere in this issue. Executive President Emeritus Thomas Cooke McCracken accepted membership in person and received an ovation from those present as his selection was announced. Dr. McCracken had attended the session of the Executive Council for two days just prior to the dinner. The other three newly-elected members were unable to attend. Communications received from them expressed their great pleasure in being chosen for membership in this group of distinguished educators.

Teaching is a painful, continual, difficult work to be done by kindness, by watching, by warning, by precept and by praise, but above all—by example.—JOHN RUSKIN

The Honor Key

AFTER several modifications the official honor key has now been completed by our official jewelers, Burr, Patterson and Auld Company, and can be secured through the office of the Recorder-Treasurer. Orders should be sent in duplicate, with remittance to the General Office. After approval the orders will be countersigned by the Recorder-Treasurer, and forwarded to the jewelers. Check or money orders may accompany the order, or badges may be sent (at additional cost) C.O.D. The price is \$6.50.

Below are reprinted the conditions under which the key may be granted, copied from the May, 1948, issue.

- "1. The candidate shall have been an active member of Kappa Delta Pi in any and/or several chapters or at large continuously or in toto for a minimum of 15 years.
 - "2. The candidate shall have given outstanding service in some phase of the work of the Society either within or without his chapter. This service should be evidenced by specific leadership either as a chapter officer or in other important activities.
 - "3. The candidate shall have given eminent service in the field of education as a classroom or special teacher; an educational administrator or supervisor; a research worker; a writer, or a contributor to the solution of education problems.
- Complete credentials of the candidate in exhibit of data on all minimum requirements shall be presented to the Executive Council for the vote of its members. A majority vote will approve the candidate. The result of the voting will be sent to the chapter making the nomination.
- All nominations for the award and all credentials shall be submitted to the National Recorder-Treasurer for presentation to the Executive Council.
- "4. It is assumed that the Executive Council will take no responsibility for the expense involved in the presentation."

Under the direction of the Executive Council forms are being prepared to carry into effect the plan described above. It is expected that those awarded the key will be issued a certificate signed by members of The Executive Council.

... perhaps the best way to send knowledge is to wrap it up in a person.—ROBERT OPPENHEIMER

In Memoriam

James Rowland Angell

James Rowland Angell, elected to membership in the Laureate chapter on February 7, 1933, passed away on March 4. For a quarter of a century Dr. Angell was professor of psychology at the University of Chicago, and was also dean of the faculty and, for one year acting president. In 1919 he went to Yale University as president, remaining in this position for seventeen years, the crowning period of his life's work. While at Yale he was responsible for setting up the "house plan,"

that there might be a closer relationship between students and faculty. After retiring from the presidency at Yale, Dr. Angell became educational counselor for the National Broadcasting Company.

Dr. Angell was the first non-graduate to become president of Yale. He guided the university through its greatest period of prosperity. He was honored by many universities, receiving more than 17 degrees. He received the rank of chevalier in the French Legion of Honor.

Counselor Long of Delta Iota Chapter Passes Away

Hollis Moody Long, of Southwestern Louisiana Institute, counselor of Delta Iota chapter for many years and active participant in the national convocations, suffered a heart attack and passed away according to word received from the chapter. He served as an administrator of public schools in North Carolina, as principal of a high school in Virginia, and as a professor in Illinois and at Southwestern where he had been a member of the faculty for eighteen years.

The chapter passed the resolutions printed below:

WHEREAS, the Great Creator in his wisdom has taken from our midst our beloved counselor, associate and teacher, Dr.

Hollis M. Long

WHEREAS, Dr. Long, because of his deep interest in our chapter and because of his great service and sympathetic counsel-

ing, has rendered to us an invaluable service and endeared himself to all of us

WHEREAS, in his passing our chapter has lost a wise leader and counselor, Southwestern an inspiring teacher and the community a valuable and loyal citizen

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED that the Delta Iota Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi express its deep regret and irreparable loss in his passing and extend to his widow and two sons our sincere regrets and deepest sympathy

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that a copy of this resolution be incorporated in the minutes of this meeting and copies sent to the press and members of his bereaved family.

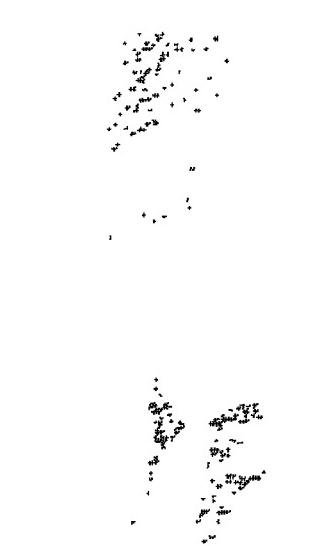
Signed: HAROLD GAUTHE

MRS. RUTH S. GIRARD

HERBERT HEBERT

HULDA ERATH

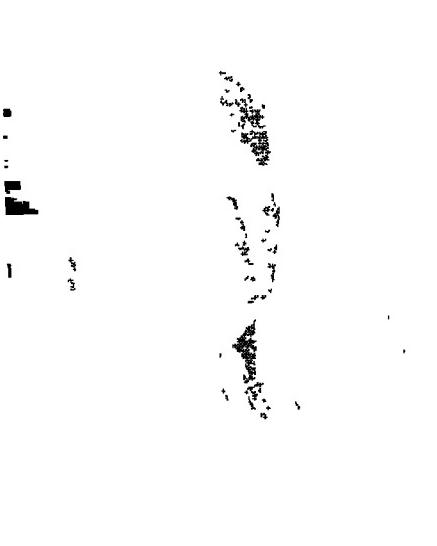
A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops.—HENRY ADAMS



DR. HAROLD BENJAMIN



DR. THOMAS COOKE McCRACKEN



SIR CYRIL L. B. BURT



MRS. ANNA ELEANOR ROOSEVELT

Newly-Elected Members of the Laureate Chapter

AT THE recent meeting of the Executive Council in Philadelphia four persons were elected to membership in the Laureate chapter: Harold Benjamin, Sir Cyril L. B. Burt, Thomas Cooke McCracken, and Mrs. Anna Eleanor Roosevelt.

Dr. Benjamin has been Dean of the College of Education of the University of Maryland since 1939. Prior to assuming his present position he had served on the staffs of the University of Oregon, Leland Stanford University, the University of Minnesota, and the University of Colorado. During the year 1942-43 he was President General of the Horace Mann League of the United States. For five years he was a member of the Teacher Education Commission of the American Council on Education. He was chairman of the Textbook Panel of Unesco. During World War II he was a major in the United States Army. In 1947 he gave the annual address in the Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series, printed in expanded form in the volume "Under Their Own Command: Observations on the Nature of a People's Education for War and Peace." Among his writings are "The Saber Tooth Curriculum," and "Emergent Conceptions of the School Administrator's Task."

Sir Cyril is a British psychologist, educated at Oxford University and the University of Wurtzburg. He filled posts as lecturer in psychology at the University of Liverpool and Cambridge University. From 1913 to 1932 he was psychologist to the London County Council, probably the first school psychologist in a large city. During a portion of this period he was Professor of Education at the University of London. Since 1930 he has been Professor of Psychology at the University of

London. He is a past president of the British Psychological Society. He is the author of seven books, the best known in the United States being "Mental and Scholastic Tests," and "The Young Delinquent."

Dr. McCracken was from 1922 until his retirement in March, 1946 Dean of the College of Education of Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. From 1935 to his retirement he was also Provost of the University. Prior to his coming to Ohio he had been on the faculty of the University of Utah and had been Dean at the Colorado College of Education. In 1924 he was first elected Executive President of Kappa Delta Pi, a position which he held for 24 years until 1948, when he was elected Executive President Emeritus, in advisory relationship to the Executive Council. When he assumed the presidency of Kappa Delta Pi in 1924 there were 26 chapters; when he retired from the office there were 154 chapters. His name was placed in nomination by many chapters of the Society.

Mrs. Roosevelt needs no introduction to American readers, being known as the wife of the President of the United States but also in her own right and achievement. While a resident of the White House she was actively interested in many welfare and educational organizations. She has written six volumes and is author of the syndicated column, *My Day*. She has received the honorary doctorate from two universities. She was American Delegate to the First General Assembly of the United Nations Organization held in London in 1946. She is Chairman of the United Nations Commission on Human Rights and also Chairman of the United Nations Drafting Committee on the International Bill of Rights.

The United States National Commission for Unesco

THE Executive President and the Recorder Treasurer represented the Society at the second official meeting in Cleveland March 31 to April 2. More than 3,000 representatives of national organizations and state and community leaders from all parts of the United States and many from foreign lands were present for this meeting held in Cleveland's famous Public Auditorium. It was called by The United States National Commission for Unesco to explore ways and means for making Unesco better understood in our country as a means to secure fuller cooperation with the organization's work. The National Commission in the United States, as similar organizations in other member countries of Unesco are in their countries, has the responsibility of making cooperation with Unesco effective here.

Among the prominent speakers were Milton S. Eisenhower, Chairman of the U. S. National Commission for Unesco, who presided; Dr. Jaime Torres Bodet, Director General, from the Paris office of Unesco; Mrs. Anna Eleanor Roosevelt, Chairman of the United Nations Commission on Human Rights; Dean Rusk, Assistant Secretary of State for United Nations Affairs; Sir John Maud, Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, the United Kingdom; Howard Wilson, of the

Staff of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; and George V. Allen, Assistant Secretary of State for Public Affairs.

Many group meetings discussed earnestly what can be done in promoting the aims of Unesco in each of the local communities of the United States.

An impressive exhibit was a feature of the meeting. Much of this was from the Cleveland area. There was a Unesco exhibit chiefly from Unesco House in Paris, showing by photographs the problems of teaching war-handicapped children. CARE's new plan for supplying books to needy countries was explained by an exhibit. International understanding through correspondence was dramatized by means of a globe, showing the parts of the earth reached by 85,000 "pen-pals" from the Cleveland area, who correspond regularly with those in other lands.

From this meeting should come inspiration for Kappa Delta Pi to cooperate through its local chapters in the work of the United States National Commission in accordance with the action which was taken at the last Convocation of our Society. The message of the Executive President which introduces this Supplement gives specific information on some of the means of cooperation.

The art of being a teacher is the art of learning to be a ruler of men. Therefore we cannot be too careful in selecting our teachers.—CONFUCIUS

The Chapters Report

Alpha Beta Chapter at the University of Arkansas celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary February 18. Dr. Frank L. Wright, Second Executive Vice President of Kappa Delta Pi, was the guest speaker at a College of Education convocation in the afternoon and at the anniversary dinner that night. The dinner was attended by 55 members and guests of Alpha Beta Chapter. Dr. Wright's subject was the *Educational Contributions of Kappa Delta Pi*. Three of the charter members of Alpha Beta Chapter were present and greetings were read from nine others.

In March Dr. George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University was the guest speaker at Gamma Iota chapter, City College of New York, New York City. The title of his address was taken from his proposed book "The Country of the Blind" (Russia). He gave an informative, well documented and interesting talk about the thought control now being practiced with amazing success in Russia. There was no one, Dr. Counts pointed out, who felt that he was unjustly accused of practices which were against Russian or Communist Party policies. Dr. Counts said that the people seemed to regard, or react to Communism in Russia as to a faith with a great deal of fanaticism. Dr. Counts stated that you cannot understand Communism in Russia by reading Marx and Engels, but rather by studying Russian history. There was a short discussion period at the close of the address.

At a meeting of the Zeta Mu chapter on January 13, 1949, East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas, thirteen new members were initiated into the organization. An impressive ceremony, conducted by Dr. C. H. Thurman of the Education Department was followed by

an inspiring address on the teaching profession in America by Dr. J. E. Franklin, head of the Department of Education. A short social period concluded the meeting.

In keeping with the University's program for inducting students into the teaching profession, Alpha Lambda Chapter of the University of Denver, turned the February meeting over to the newly initiated students for a night of "Fun and Frolick."

This meeting was held in the very beautiful and spacious Renaissance Room of Mary Reed Library on the University campus.

The first portion of the meeting was utilized as a "get acquainted" period. During this time students had an opportunity to mingle with, and get better acquainted with the University faculty, and teachers and administrators in the Denver Public Schools.

Following this, the students had planned many very entertaining games which were carried out with much enthusiastic merriment on the part of all those present.

The third part of the evening was devoted to a program of music presented by three of the University students, a pianist and a marimba duet who entertained with a delightful mixture of classical and popular music. All of the members then joined in a good old fashioned "community sing."

This memorable evening was regretfully brought to a close after the serving of refreshments, and it was unanimously agreed that this had been one of the most successful and entertaining meetings heretofore held.

Eta Chapter at Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana, presented "Mary Dean, Teacher," a motion picture open to all stu-

dents, as a part of the April program.

Another program was an "Apple Hour." The purpose was to better acquaint the members with the prospective pledges. The event was cooperatively planned by the social and pledging committees under the leadership of Charles Jones and Jean Alexander.

Sylvanus Monks and his education committee has also been quite busy recently. They have collected over one thousand textbooks to send to Bonn University, Bonn, Germany where J. R. Mitchell of the Purdue University Teacher Placement Service is now located.

The chapter has recently organized three new committees. One of these, the Master File Committee under the chairmanship of Eloise Allen, will make it possible for another new group, the Alumni Newsletter Committee with Sara Cauldwell as Chairman, to inform the members who have graduated about the on-campus activities of the chapter. The third committee is the Radio Program Committee with Carolyn Widener serving as Chairman of the group.

"Alpha Sigma Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi at San Diego State College turned out en masse at the Annual Regional Dinner sponsored by Phi Delta Kappa, graduate educational fraternity, for the educational organizations of the community. After a delicious dinner, the State College Girls' Sextet sang several groups of songs. Climaxing the evening, an excellent reading of 'Wingless Victory' was given by Mr. S. Sellman.

"After much deliberation, two educational students were chosen as recipients of the educational scholarships our chapter is establishing this year. Criteria of eligibility for the scholarships are outstanding scholarship, worthiness, and need. The scholarship for elementary education was given to Marjorie Enlund; that for secondary edu-

cation to Hisa Imanura.

"Our chapter was honored recently by the election of one of our new members, Gene Schniepp, to the state presidency of the California Student Teachers Association.

"Ted Bass, field representative of the Southern Section of the California Teachers' Association, was the guest speaker of our last meeting held in Scripps Cottage on campus. He spoke to us about teacher democracy and emphasized the privileges of being a teacher. The services of the California Teachers' Association were explained and before the serving of refreshments at the close of the meeting, we were well informed and stimulated concerning the teachers' role in today's society.

"Miss Winelda Park, an alumni member of Kappa Delta Pi, was the main speaker of the April meeting. Miss Park, a member of the San Diego City Schools teaching staff spent last year in Europe and her educational experiences and other observations proved a most interesting and valuable experience for the group."—FRANK COLE

Zeta Zeta chapter, State Teachers College, New Paltz, New York, recently welcomed Dr. Kenneth Howe, Merrill Orchard, Susie Bellows, Frances Coleman, Jessie Hahn, Minnie McAuley and Miss Sophie Soviczki who were among the newcomers to the campus and to Zeta Zeta chapter. The annual banquet is scheduled for April, when new officers will be elected for the ensuing year.

"Alpha Phi chapter has had a very active program so far this year. The chapter meetings have been enriched by lectures given by students here at Alabama Polytechnic Institute who attended schools in other countries. Mrs. Yvonne Boone related school experiences in the secondary school system in Paris, France. Bill Manley dis-

closed many interesting points on the English school systems.

"On February 26, the chapter held a reception in honor of the juniors in the school of education. There was a fine turnout.

"The large spring reception was held April 5.

"The chapter plans to schedule a well-known speaker for the occasion.

"All in all, Alpha Phi is growing steadily and is being felt here on the campus more than at any other period of its existence."

—REPORTER

Delta Phi chapter, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio, is celebrating its tenth anniversary on the Bowling Green Campus on May 11, 1949. At a formal dinner that evening, Dr. William McKinley Robinson, Executive President of Kappa Delta Pi, will give the main address. A special effort is being made to have as many graduate members attend as possible. The chaperons from Toledo University and Heidelberg College are invited to attend the event.

"An Honors Tea was held April 10, 1949 in the Practical Arts Building on the local campus. All Education students with a B average or over are to be invited.

"A recent meeting of Kappa Delta Pi proved a very pleasant and successful evening. The theme of the meeting was "A Visit to the Schools of Other Lands." Students from other countries told of their educational backgrounds.

The speakers and their respective countries were:

Mr. John Nyssen, Netherlands

Mr. David Nee, China

Mr. Van Dimitriades, Greece

Mr. Mussa Karan, Palestine

Mrs. Ellen Bartlett, Germany

Miss Susie Grenier, France

Mr. Ned Cadium, Turkey

At a recent initiation banquet the guest speaker was Rev. John W. McMahan, of the First Methodist Church, Fostoria. The title of his address was "Men Must Think."

The guest speaker spent seven weeks this summer in Europe, where he toured six nations and attended the World Council of Churches in Amsterdam.

New members of the fraternity in education are: Peggy Ann Baringer, Richard Baum, Donald Beatty, Richard Bloom, Barbara Bottenus, Lee Brown, Dorothea Cepik, Marjorie Charles, R. W. Constein, Alice Elton, Arthur Fowls, Wanda Geist, Robert Goss, Jean Graham, Marjorie Herring.

Grace Kusenberg, Winifred Lander, James Lauck, James Layer, Marjorie Maple, Lois Ann Mitchell, William Pickett, Robert Poland, Evelyn Poorman, Barbara Provost, Anthony Schiavo, Illa Searfoss, Carol Seffing, Stanley Shaffer, Laurence Shrider, Dorothy Skriletz, Ernest Watts, Shirley Wendt, John Whilhelm, Nell Wills, and Robert Heiberger."

The Delta Psi chapter, Shepherd State Teachers College, Shepherdstown, West Virginia, writes:

"On December 3, in the Recreation Room of Synder Science Hall, the members held a reception for all education students. This was to acquaint students concerning the activities of this organization as well as a better understanding of its standards.

"Mr. Jorgensen, president of the society, gave a brief history of the chapter, and also explained the requirements to be a member. He said 'Now is the time to act.' We must not wait until it is too late to strive toward higher things.

"The following officers were introduced —Nancy C. Manuel, vice-president; Cora Roulette, secretary; and Lucille Shultz, treasurer.

"Mrs. A. D. Kennamond, wife of our counselor, presided at the punch bowl which was placed at one end of a table decorated with candles and flowers of colors of the society. All other refreshments also carried out the color scheme of purple and green.

"Delta Psi chapter has been rather active on the campus this semester. Wm. Jorgensen was appointed as chairman of UNESCO committee.

"Cora Roulette and Meade Waldeck were selected for *Who's Who Among Students in Colleges and Universities*.

Some of our members will graduate in February. They are Wm. Jorgensen, Meade Waldeck, Richard Whisner, Rosemary Watters, Lyle Johnson, Lucille Schultz.

"The 1948-49 active membership of Kappa Chapter is about five hundred. The year is just getting well under way and we hope that many more will decide to submit current dues. We are striving for better attendance at regular meetings and more participation in chapter activities by the membership. Any suggestions will be welcomed.

"Seventy-one new members were initiated into Kappa Chapter on November 29. Professor Henry S. Commager, of Columbia University, gave an address on 'English Character As Reflected in English Institutions.'

"Kappa Chapter is very proud of all its new initiates. But one deserves special mention. Malcolm D. Williams, of North Carolina, is the newly-elected president of the Student Council. He reports to us that recent Student Councils have accomplished the following: Addition of a Student Counselor to the staff; improvement in the weekly bulletin and in the bulletin boards; improvement in lighting in Milbank Chapel and the libraries; several faculty teas; affiliation with the Columbia University

Student Council; reporting of marks to students, instead of a 'P' to the student and a lettergrade to the registrar's office; and an attractive and useful '*T. C. Handbook*' to acquaint students with the facilities of Teachers College.

"Last summer the Student Council constitution was revised. Representatives from the student body were elected by departments this fall, instead of from clubs as formerly. About 2400 students voted this fall, as compared with 800 in the previous election. At the last Council meeting the Executive Committee was instructed to send a letter to Phi Kappa Psi chapter, Amherst College, commending it for selecting members on a non-discriminatory basis, and to send a copy of the letter to the National Organization.

"Committees are now at work on further revision of the Student Council Constitution and on bettering communication between Council members and student body and faculty."

—KAPPA NEWSLETTER

Beta Iota Chapter, Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan at its March meeting had Dr. James H. Griggs, Director of Teacher Education of the college as its speaker. He pointed out four main trends in education: the movement from the subject matter center to the human center; the changing concept of evaluation; an increasing emphasis on psychological applications; and the trend towards the practical. The April meeting was a formal initiation banquet. Dr. Earl E. Mosier, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction in Michigan was the guest speaker. His topic was "Modern Trends in Teacher Education." Betty Yonkers was general chairman. At the May meeting Mr. Paul Harton, of the Department of Sociology is to speak on "Sex Education." A motion picture "Human Growth" will also be shown.

Gamma Alpha Chapter of Radford College, Radford, Virginia held its annual Founders' Day Banquet on the evening of February 16, 1949. Preceding the dinner twenty-one new members were formally initiated into the fraternity. Miss Blanche Daniel, president of the fraternity, welcomed the guests and the new and old members. Following the welcome, letters from some of the old members who were unable to be present were read.

"After dinner, the new members presented a short skit, 'The Passing Review,' with Mr. Roscoe Buckland serving as master of ceremonies. Dr. M'Ledge Moffett presented the speaker, Dr. B. L. Hummel, Extension Sociologist of Virginia Polytechnic Institute. Dr. Hummel spoke about his experiences in China.

The new members who were initiated are Mrs. Edith Conwell Carraway, Betty Lou Cromer, Miss Miriam Dorman, Mary Garth, Betty Anne Hamilton, Peggy Lucas, Marian Miller, Zoe Ramirez-Font, Betty Lou Winchester, Mary Adams, Louise Allen, Winnie Bush, Josephine Hall, Hattie Lee, Gerry Leffel, Elizabeth Lipp, Marie Reynolds, Aneta Stanley, and Viola Thompson.

Graduate students initiated are Roscoe V. Buckland and Mrs. Geneva Taylor Neely.

Omega chapter of Kappa Delta Pi has several projects planned for this spring. First of all, to sponsor a band concert on April 27, by the Ohio University Band. It was to be for the benefit of Athens County school children. The chapter plans to make this event an annual affair.

The annual spring initiation with a banquet following was held April 5, to honor Dean Irma Voigt, who is resigning this year as Dean of Women of Ohio University. Dean Voigt has been treasurer of Omega chapter since it was organized on our campus in 1924, and she was a charter

member of Alpha chapter at the University of Illinois.

On May 1 a reception was held at the Men's Dormitory on the campus for all the sophomore men and women honor students.

Omega chapter was host to school students from nearby Vinton County on March 17. These students are members of the Future Teachers of America, and are coming to Ohio University to view the campus with the idea of training to become teachers. Members of the chapter will entertain these people for the day.

Epsilon Omega Chapter of Oswego State Teachers College, Oswego, New York has a busy schedule for the spring semester. The group is sponsoring its annual assembly program during which the new pledges to Kappa Delta Pi will be introduced to the student body. The program, which will be held in May, will feature a guest speaker from Youth Argosy, who will talk on the subject of opportunities for college students to spend a summer studying abroad. At the November meeting we had a talk by one of our students who had spent last summer on such a program in Norway, attending the University of Oslo for a lecture series and going on field trips to several other countries in Europe. The chapter recognized the advantages of such an opportunity for offering vital teaching background. With this in mind, we asked a representative from Youth Argosy, which sponsors these educational programs, to enlighten our entire student body.

The initiation banquet and ceremony for induction of initiates is to be held the evening of May 12 at the Hotel Pontiac. The speaker at this function will be Dr. Harold Alford, advisor to our chapter and head of the General Elementary Department in the college.

The chapter hears regularly from one

of our honorary members, Dr. Marietta Odell, who is on sabbatical leave. She is touring Latin America and has written us very many interesting comments about the educational systems in the schools of our neighbors to the south.

One of this year's main projects was the publishing of an *Alumni Newsletter* which was sent to all Epsilon Omega alumni, informing them of the chapter's activities for the year.

Six candidates were initiated into Gamma Kappa Chapter, the University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma, on the evening of Thursday, February 24 with a full ritual team conducting the ritual. The new members are all seniors and graduate students and are: Margaret E. Wright, Gretchen Wheeler, Mary Dale Money, Ernest Kirkland, Thomas Clayton Randolph, and Rose Ann Evans.

A very apropos and excellently delivered address by Dr. M. M. Blair, of the Economics Department of Tulsa University was heard. Dr. Blair is the author of several textbooks upon Statistics. His address was entitled "The Drive of the Over-Man" and was delivered with blackboard illustrations depicting the distribution of people and their abilities to produce as in the shape of Standard Deviations.

"The men with the 'Over-Drive' are those above the median, and it is they who produce the jobs for those below the median. It is the clerk, who does an efficient job of bookkeeping, the scientist with manufacturing advances, and it is the college student, who, though he barely gets through college becomes a dynamic force with a successful life. All of these men have 'over-drive.' It's the same drive that has made America great."

"Further," said Dr. Blair, "it is not money I have reference to altogether, for there are the musicians, artists, and other creative men with minds that produce that

you and I might better enjoy our life.

"One thing is to be viewed with rising alarm, and that is the taxation rate. For, when this happens, production curves flatten, and the average man and below average receives less and less.

"Intelligence (*per se*) is of little value, and so is 'drive' without intelligence. But both qualities together are apropos. The politician was likened to a 'gimme-tick,' and too many people today view Federal Government with what causes them to be labeled 'Gimmes.' We face the future at a very similar point that the Roman Empire once did, and we may see a piteous ending in our life times if you as teachers do not aid by educating against this stifling threat to individual initiative."

Dr. Blair said, in closing, "My trail is almost finished, and it is now up to you, who by your quality of character, evidence of desire to serve mankind, and intellectual capacities have this night become members in an honor society of education, to carry on to better mankind's lot."

On March 25, Dr. Oliver Hodges, State Superintendent of Teacher Certification for Oklahoma, will address a meeting that is open to the public. This will be held in the new Lorton Hall Auditorium Business Education Building, and an opportunity for many teachers in training to garner first hand information is a treat that we all are looking forward to. Dr. Hodges, is an alumnus of Tulsa University, was three times Superintendent of Education in Tulsa County, and is an alumnus member of Gamma Kappa Chapter.

One of the yearly activities of Alpha Alpha Chapter, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, is a Sunday afternoon tea honoring freshmen and sophomores in education. Not only persons who expect to become teachers are invited to the tea, but also those interested enough in education to take some beginning courses in it.

This year the tea was given Sunday afternoon, February 20, from 3:30 to 5:00 at the home of Miss Dorothy Bussard, a high school teacher in Delaware, who is also a member of the chapter. Miss Betty Hagemeyer, vice-president of Alpha Alpha Chapter was in charge of the program. The social chairman, Miss Dorothy Curtis gave a talk in which she explained something of the background of Kappa Delta Pi to the guests and discussed the importance of understanding current education problems by all adults. Miss Helen Baker, home economics instructor in the high school and instructor of the methods course in home economics in the college and also a member of the chapter, sang three songs accompanied by Miss Dorothy Bussard.

Kappa chapter at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City reports:

"Kappa Delta Pi, Pi Lambda Theta and Phi Delta Kappa, the three education honor societies with chapters at Teachers College, held a joint meeting on February 18. Dr. Harold Rugg introduced the speaker, Dr. Harold Benjamin, Dean of the College of Education, University of Maryland. The title of Dr. Benjamin's address was 'Old Man Coyote and the Common Weal'—a very hilarious parable of the 'curriculum' extant for the creatures of the wild at the 'Woods School.' A fine philosophy, a sense of humor, and excellent delivery characterized Dr. Benjamin's message.

"Professor Emeritus William H. Kilpatrick spoke at the March meeting of Kappa chapter. His topic: 'Fundamental Changes in Educational Philosophy, Social and Psychological, Since 1890.' This delightful presentation showed the development of the major trends of the past fifty years in education. This lecture was followed by a reception, during which Dr. Kilpatrick answered questions.

"Kappa Chapter has extended invitations to 246 approved candidates for initiation this spring. The tea for initiates will be held on March 23.

"The first issue of the *Kappa Newsletter* met with much approval. A second issue is now on its way to members of Kappa chapter. We will also forward a copy to national headquarters.

"The Spring Initiation Banquet was held on April 23 at the Men's Faculty Club. The main address will be delivered by Lisa Sergio, radio commentator, analyst, and authority on world affairs."

ROBERT R. LEEPER

"The February meeting of the Beta Theta chapter, State Teachers College, Oshkosh, Wisconsin was held at the Oshkosh Public Museum on the evening of the sixteenth. The meeting was one of the monthly supper meetings held throughout the year.

"A delightful program was presented by the members of the program committee and took the form of recordings compiled by the famous Edward Murrow. This particular presentation was entitled 'I Can Hear It Now' a series of the recorded voices of the men who made the history of the world in the period from 1933 to the end of the second world war. Some of the more prominent voices heard were those of Wendell Willkie, Thomas E. Dewey, Franklin D. Roosevelt and Winston Churchill. Some of the more talked about happenings such as the burning of the dirigible 'Hindenburg,' and V.E. day and V.J. day were recorded.

"Another supper meeting was held in the same location on the evening of March 16, 1949. This meeting was of the usual combined business-supper type and due to the fact that it was the last of its kind this year much business was brought to light. A movie entitled 'The Teacher's Crisis' was presented at this meeting.

"The spring initiation was held this year on the evening of April 23, 1949, at which time the eight people accepted into the society became members of Kappa Delta Pi."

Omicron Chapter, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota initiated eight new members on February 14. They were Barbara Lewis, George Pilcher, Thomas Gorsuch, Phyllis Lillemoe, Edward Gerber, Rolland Greeno, Amaryllis Ehlers, and Alice Bachmayer. Preceding the ceremony a banquet was served at which there were many alumni members present.

The officers of Omicron Chapter are: president, June Wolf Jones, Lebanon, South Dakota; vice-president, Myrna Clemenson, Conde, South Dakota; secretary, Esther Robertson, Aberdeen, South Dakota; treasurer, John Bornong, Firesteel, South Dakota. The counselor is Professor J. W. Thomas who succeeded Professor E. P. Lynn, now at Eau Claire State Teachers College, Eau Claire, Wisconsin.

At the January meeting of Beta Rho chapter, State Teachers College, Mansfield, Pennsylvania, two students contributed their talents by giving a dramatization of the play "Journey's End." These two students, John Parsons and Robert Sweeney, were initiated into Beta Rho Chapter in November.

James G. Morgan, president of Mansfield State Teachers College, spoke and carried on a discussion at our February meeting. The report entitled "What Did You Get from College" was compiled by *Time* magazine.

At the March meeting, Miss Marie Louise Loigier who came to America from France on an AAUW fellowship and is now teaching at Elmira College, Elmira, New York, was the guest speaker. Beta Rho invited the students who were on the

Dean's List the first semester as their special guests for this meeting.

The climax of the year for Beta Rho Chapter is its annual formal banquet to be held sometime in May. Mr. Howells who traveled in Europe during the past summer will be the guest speaker.

"On February 7, Zeta Alpha Chapter, State Teachers College, Paterson, New Jersey had a very interesting discussion on *Civilization On Trial* by Arnold J. Toynbee. This volume deals with many broad issues the world faces today. Each chapter of the book deals with a different problem, but there is a unity of outlook, aim, and idea. The culminating effect presented in the last two chapters is one of understanding—of our civilization in its relation to history and of the road we must take if we are to save ourselves and our civilization from disaster.

"All members participated in this timely discussion. President Myrtle V. Pavlis of Bogota presided at the meeting which was held in Dr. Louise E. Alteneder's apartment in Paterson. Refreshments were served following the business meeting.

"At the regular meeting in March, members of Zeta Alpha Chapter discussed a Book of the Old Testament—*Jeremiah*. Plans for the annual installation dinner at the Alexander Hamilton Hotel in Paterson were discussed also. Dr. Ethel J. Alpenfels will be asked to be a speaker at the dinner. New members were elected."

Alpha Nu Chapter, The University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming gave \$20 to the Krueger Memorial. The memorial is being established to buy books and recordings for the University High School. Miss Krueger was an English teacher.

"The March meeting of the Delta Sigma Chapter, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania was held Tuesday evening, March 8, in the college day-rooms. There were 29 members present,

including the old members and those taken into the chapter this year.

"The first part of the evening's program consisted of an impressive candlelight initiation service, in which the 20 initiates were formally inducted into the chapter.

"Following a brief business discussion, the president introduced the speaker for the evening, Dr. Phillip Kochman, principal and sixth grade supervisor of the Campus School. Dr. Kochman directed his talk to the members as potential leaders in some phase of education. According to him, there are two considerations of which we need to be aware: the power which can be wielded for good by the active teachers' organizations and the need for real democratic schools and administration. An open discussion followed Dr. Kochman's inspiring talk.

"After refreshments of coffee and doughnuts, the meeting was adjourned.

"The following is a list of the initiates: Charles Ardary, Robert Bauman, Elizabeth Buckley, Doris Buckreis, John Deliman, Ray Dombrowski, Ethel Duke, Earl Foust, Patricia Kunselman, Patricia Lauth, Thomas McCarthy, James Miller, Lewis Pike, Joseph Pontillo, Frank Rackish, William Reiter, Charles Scheid, Roy Swanson, Jack Tidlow, and Robert Weaver.

"The following three members were initiated last semester and graduated in January, 1949: Melvin Darrow, Helen Day, George Gamble.

"Thanks to the wise program planning of Dr. O. G. Wilson, chairman, Phi Chapter has had this winter, two of the most outstanding programs it has ever had. At the February meeting, held at President Hall's new home, Dr. Richard Beard, newly affiliated with Phi from Xi, showed his collection of colored films on India. Dr. Beard, who for two years was attached to the Medical Corps of the United States Army in India, was able thru a friend in

the Photographic Corps to obtain prints of many notable scenes in India and for over an hour he held us spellbound with his slides and his clever comments about them.

"At the March meeting, held at the Wilson home, Professor Katherine Wehler of the English department was the guest speaker. Using as background material Laura Ingalls Wilder's *These Happy Golden Years*, Bliss Perry's *And Gladly Teach*, Virgil Scott's *The Hickory Stick*, and James B. Conant's *Education in a Divided World*, she traced the evolution of the present status of teaching. Thru clever contrast and thru the reading of selected passages, she showed how the problems of Mrs. Wilder's day, simple and mainly physical, became the more complex problems of the more complex civilization of Scott's day. Professor Wehler contrasted the equipment, the professional vocabularies, the faculty meetings, living conditions, in a way that was extremely entertaining and at the same time highly provocative. She closed on an optimistic note, quoting Conant's plea for peace in a fluid world."

The Alpha Pi Chapter, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee of Kappa Delta Pi had its initiation banquet for new members on February 23, 1949. In addition to the 37 new members, Dr. Henry H. Hill was initiated as an honorary member of the Alpha Pi Chapter. Dr. Hill is president of George Peabody College for Teachers; he has been in this office since 1946. The meeting was brought to a close with an acceptance by Dr. Hill.

The present officers of Alpha Pi Chapter are: Mr. A. E. Anderson, counselor; Edward Shumard, president; Mrs. T. K. Martin, vice-president; Senia Diddy, recording secretary; Sam Kendrick, treasurer; Jerry H. Rust, Jr., corresponding secretary.

Epsilon Tau Chapter of Kappa Delta

Pi initiated the following new members on March 2, 1949: Angelo J. Branciforte, Mrs. Francis M. Meekin, Mary Catherine Agan, Elizabeth A. Williams, Lucille Willey Johnson, graduate member, Barbara R. Frey, and graduate member Adele Copeland.

Plans are being made for our annual Kappa Delta Pi banquet on May 4 to be highlighted with a speaker on our topic for this year "Customs and Folkways of Different Countries."

Alpha Theta Chapter, University of Akron, Ohio, initiated five new members into its ranks at a February meeting on Friday evening, February 25. They are John M. Bogner, teacher at Ellet High School; Charles D. Querry, president of the Akron Education Association and teacher at Central High School; Miss Geraldine Heminger, graduate student in nursing education, and two undergraduate students, Geraldine Crano and Donald Oneacre. After a short business meeting, plans for programs for ensuing meetings were discussed.

At a March meeting, the executive committee met for the purpose of screening potential members. The committee also discussed plans for a forthcoming initiation, election, and installation of new officers.

Beta Tau Chapter of La Crosse State Teachers College commemorated the founding of Kappa Delta Pi, March 8, 1911 with a Founders' Day banquet. Guests at this 16th annual event, held this year at the Cargill Home on March 12, were the college faculty, high school principals and teachers, and alumni of Beta Tau Chapter. The speaker was Dr. Aburey Castell of the department of philosophy, University of Minnesota, who spoke on a "Three-step Introduction to Philosophy."

On February 14, the members of Iota Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi met for one

of the most outstanding programs of the year. A panel discussion group composed of foreign students from our campus presented a discussion on "Education in My Country." Those students taking part in this program were Eunice Anderson of Hilo, Hawaii; Edna Cruz of Guatemala City, Guatemala; Ada Vera of Hato Rey, Puerto Rico; Jean Leblon of Chimay, Belgium; and Percy Wang of Changsha, China.

On March 14, the program of Iota Chapter at Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia was presented by the newly elected members. The program included a piano solo by Dorothy Buckley, a reading by Joanne Barnhart, and a group discussion led by Wayne Stallard. It was announced that at the next meeting there will be the election of new members and of new officers.

The March meeting of Gamma Epsilon Chapter, Montclair State Teachers College (New Jersey) was both impressive and interesting. At this meeting, 30 prospective members were pledged in the traditional candlelight ceremony. Following the ceremony, Miss Marie Kuhnhen, an alumnus and now a faculty member of the science department talked about her trip to Guatemala using kodachrome slides which she took during her trip. A question period followed. As an undergraduate student, Miss Kuhnhen was a member of Gamma Epsilon Chapter.

It is reported by Beta Gamma Chapter, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania:

"The Beta Gamma chapter annual scholarship awarded to a sophomore whom the members choose for scholastic standing and leadership was awarded to Samuel Chairman at the Scholarship Convocation held during February.

"The chapter has undertaken to survey all alumni members and then compile the

returns into a report. Mr. Arthur F. Nicholson, alumnus of this chapter and Publicity Director for the college, is chairman.

"Peter Costantino, Ruth Wilkes, and Paul Winger were formally initiated and presented their initiate research projects, which are required of all new members. Paul Winger displayed a scale model of Crater Lake in Oregon, and Peter Costantino a treatise on a new grading system for high schools.

"Sufficient money has been raised through donations from campus organizations and private individuals to carry out the chapter's program to sponsor a foreign student on the campus for next year. Arrangements have been made through the Institute of International Education for the selection of the student and the administration of the college has pledged its co-operation. The students look forward to meeting the student in September.

"At the April 6 meeting election of next year's officers was had and Narciso Gamberoni is to be president; Mary Jane Feeman, vice-president; Velma Brown, secretary; Ruth Wilkes, historian-reporter; and Paul Winger, treasurer."

Alpha Gamma Chapter, the University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky has issued its first printed yearbook. Each month the chapter has some type of meeting. In January the chapter gave the third annual party for the Future Teachers of America. The treasurer of the chapter, Dr. Ellis F. Hartford, is now serving on an educational commission in Japan. Dean William S. Taylor, so long treasurer, is back at his desk after some time in Florida recuperating from illness. This year the chapter follows the practice of having an informal tea in connection with business meetings. Cleo Dawson Smith gave an excellent review of *Edward, My Son*. She is author of the best seller of a few years

ago, *She Came to the Valley*.

Epsilon Eta Chapter, Central Michigan College of Education, Mount Pleasant, Michigan now has 70 student and faculty members, since 26 new members were initiated on December 9. After the ceremony a banquet was addressed by Russell Le-Cronier, superintendent of the Mount Pleasant schools on the problems confronting beginning teachers. On March 2, the guest speaker was Miss Frances Martin, Professor of Psychology and Education, who recently returned from Japan where she served for three months as a consultant in elementary education. Her subject was "Our Responsibility for Education in Japan." On March 15 Epsilon Eta Chapter joined the chapter of the Association for Childhood Education in giving an informal reception and tea honoring Madame Hélène Brûlé, Directrice of the Normal School at Tours, France. Madame Brûlé who is visiting various educational centers under the auspices of the N.E.A. spoke informally about French education and post-war conditions in France.

Attendance has been excellent at meetings of the Gamma Lambda Chapter at Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, Missouri. In February, Mr. Heckman, Minister of Music at Pilgrim Congregational Church in St. Louis, gave an enjoyable and informative lecture regarding the organ. Mr. Euris Jackson, Assistant Principal of the Southwest High School of St. Louis analyzed the mistakes which were made by high school freshmen on mathematics examinations. An interesting discussion followed. In April there was a trip to the Art Museum where there was a special program and tour.

At the Rhode Island College of Education, Providence, Rhode Island, Epsilon Chapter had Miss Sum Mai Mitzi Kam, of Hawaii, as guest speaker. She discussed Hawaiian education and particularly school

methods. In April there was a business meeting, followed by a dinner. Plans have been made for an educational field trip. The chapter has a project of securing toys for children at the state orphanage. A formal initiation is planned for May.

Chi Chapter of Western State College, Gunnison, Colorado, writes: "Our chapter recently was privileged to hear from the lips of a native Norwegian, a comprehensive comparison of the educational systems and practices of the two countries, Norway and America.

"Mr. Gerhardt Knoop stated that Norway is definitely stronger on factual knowledge, America on extracurricular activities. The American product is definitely superior in self-confidence, he stated, with his background of substantial knowledge definitely inferior to that of the Norwegian. Also there is no doubt that the American student enjoys his educational experience more than does the Norwegian.

"Norway, being a small country, and facing the problems of communication with less wealth, has achieved certain institutions of which Mr. Knoop and his fellow countrymen are very proud. The "Oslo breakfast," a meal served at noon to all school pupils to counteract any possibility of under-nourishment due to unfortunate conditions, is one of these. Another, that of the definite effort of the University group at Oslo to bring to its constituents the outstanding speakers of the world, interested the group particularly."

In addition to its regular meetings and social programs, Zeta Delta Chapter, Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine, Texas has resolved itself into a welcoming body for students coming to their campus from foreign countries. Committees have been set up to help the foreign students make better social adjustments in school, good religious adjustments in churches of their faith, and in other ways that seem desir-

able. The chapter has also started a chapter scrapbook of Kappa Delta Pi activities which will be exhibited at each meeting. A distinctive lamp with an appropriate western-style base and a lampshade displaying the Kappa Delta Pi insignia, the name of the college, chapter and the date of installation, will be used in initiations.

Upsilon Chapter, University of Florida, College of Education, Gainesville, Florida, held its first regular meeting in 1948 on October 29. At this meeting the group had a general discussion of future plans for programs and possible speakers to address meetings to be held during the coming year. Several business meetings were held at which no speaker was present. However, at the November meeting Dr. Robert E. Carson, Professor of Humanities, gave an interesting and colorful address on the subject of "An Appreciation of Art." On January 28 an informal initiation was held for 23 new members as follows: Clarice I. Ashmore, Edward H. Benson, Janice Wilson Brown, Frederick Chastain, Harmon E. Chesser, William B. Galbraith, Mary T. Garrison, Pete House, James L. King, Badger L. Langford, James Matthews, John W. W. Patrick, Helen R. Pink, Andrew C. Preston, Gordon B. Pyle, John Marsh Reynolds, Samuel G. Sadler, William M. J. Scruggs, Eurus G. Sellers, Jr., John C. Shepard, Catherine E. Spangler, Willis A. Whittington, and Faye J. Wilson. At this meeting Dr. Donald W. Cox, Instructor in Education, was principal speaker. His subject was "The Influence of Pressure Groups on Federal Aid to Education." Immediately following his address refreshments were served, and the new members were welcomed into Upsilon Chapter.

One very unusual program was devoted to "Religion in Public Education" the speaker being Dr. Harry Philpott of the University Department of Religion.

Chapter Programs

MU CHAPTER

*Illinois State Normal University,
Normal, Illinois*

The meetings of Mu Chapter during the present school year have been devoted mainly to the discussion of education in other countries. We were fortunate in being able to secure as speakers two of the German and Austrian teachers who were brought to this country for the school year 1948-49 under the auspices of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, namely Miss Gertude Betsch of Germany who spoke on the reorganization of the German school-system, and Dr. Hermann Schnell of Vienna who discussed "Problems and Development that Europe Faces in Education." Education in Puerto Rico was the topic for discussion by Miss Ada Perez and Miss Olimpia Rodrigues, former students and teachers in Puerto Rico. We were also favored with an illustrated lecture "Flying Down to New Zealand," given by Miss Edna Gueffroy of our Geography department.

Probably the most important action taken by our chapter this year was the making of a contribution of \$100 to a memorial fund that is being raised in honor of one of our most active and helpful members, Dr. Stella Van Petten Henderson, who passed away on May 31, 1948. Mrs. Henderson was elected president of Mu Chapter after Kappa Delta Pi was organized on our campus, for the spring quarter of 1922, and in May of that year for the following year 1922-23. It was largely owing to her influence that policies were decided on which have continued with but minor modifications ever since. After her graduation here in 1923, Mrs. Henderson taught for a number of years in the Joliet Township High School. In 1933 she was brought

back to our campus as a member of the faculty. During all these years she kept up an active interest in the activities of our chapter, attending all but one of our annual reunions. Dr. Henderson was a fine example of loyalty to the highest ideals of the teaching profession. That accounts for the fact that shortly after her death her friends among faculty and student body began to plan for the establishment of the Stella Henderson Memorial Fund to provide a scholarship for a graduate student interested in the field of chief interest to Dr. Henderson, Philosophy and Philosophy of Education.

ALPHA ALPHA CHAPTER

*Ohio Wesleyan University,
Delaware, Ohio*

1948-1949

With the exception of the talks at the initiation banquet, which deal with "Our Emerging Profession" and the "Privilege of Teaching," the program for the year is on some problems of particular interest to beginning teachers.

October 26—Panel Discussion: First Day of School Mr. Graham, chairman, Miss Haid, Mrs. Rayburn, Miss Whitted.

November 23—Initiation and banquet, Bun's Restaurant Speaker, Mr. L. L. Dickey, Superintendent of Schools, Marion, Ohio.

December 14—Christmas Meeting. Home of Dr. and Mrs. Sheridan. Program chairman: Dr. C. O. Mathews.

January 11—"Signing on the Dotted Line." Mr. Allan C. Ingraham, program chairman. Home of Dean and Mrs. Ficken.

February 13—Tea honoring Freshmen and Sophomores in Education. Speaker, Mr. Harry Nest. Home of Miss Dorothy Bussard.

March 15—Initiation and banquet. Bun's Restaurant. Speaker, Dr. Harold J. Sheridan.

April 19—Panel "Which Road Shall I Take?" Program chairman, Mr. Robert Schumann. Home of Dr. and Mrs. Mathews.

May 24—"After Four?" Speaker, Mr. Carl Hopkins. Home of Mr. and Mrs. Ingraham.

ALPHA GAMMA CHAPTER

*University of Kentucky, Lexington,
Kentucky*

October 29—Educational Conference Tea—Joint host with Phi Delta Kappa, Delta Kappa Gamma, Graduate Education Club, and Future Teachers of America—4:00 P.M., Music Room, Student Union Bldg., University of Kentucky.

November 11—Business Meeting and Tea—Election of New Members—4:00 P.M., Room 104, Education College, University of Kentucky.

December 8—Co-Sponsor of Education Convocation, Dr. Alonzo F. Myers, Professor of Education, New York University, speaker. 11:00 A.M., Auditorium, Education College, University of Kentucky.

December 13—Initiation and Reception for New Members. Talk—"Soviet Psychosis" by Dr. R. L. Tuthill, Geography Department, University of Kentucky—7:30 P.M., Faculty Club, University of Kentucky.

January 13—Party for Future Teachers of America, University of Kentucky chapter—7:30 P.M., Recreation Room, Education College, University of Kentucky.

March 31—Business Meeting—Election of New Members—4:00 P.M., Room 104, Education College, University of Kentucky.

March 10—Mrs. George Edwin Smith (Cleo Dawson Smith) reviewing the

Broadway success, "Edward, My Son"—Phi Delta Kappa, Graduate Education Club, and Future Teachers, guests—7:30 P.M., Music Room, Student Union Bldg., University of Kentucky.

April 22—K. E. A. Luncheon—12:15 P.M., Brown Hotel, Louisville, Kentucky.

May 12—Annual Spring Dinner and Initiation of New Members—6:30 P.M., Student Union Bldg., University of Kentucky.

BETA ALPHA CHAPTER

San Jose State College, San Jose, California

October 12—Business meeting.

October 18—A get-acquainted meeting with other Education groups.

October 19—Members of Kappa Delta Pi were guests of Epsilon Pi Tau. Mr. Jack Anderson told of his experiences in Korea during the summer, while on a special educational mission for the government.

November 22—Pledge service and a short mixer.

December 1—Formal Initiation Service. Formal pictures were taken for the year book.

January 18—Business meeting.

February 7—Business meeting.

February 28—Business meeting. Informal pictures for the year book were taken.

March 10—Kappa Delta Pi pot luck supper. Games and dancing were enjoyed after the supper.

BETA DELTA CHAPTER

*Southeastern State College,
Durant, Oklahoma*

September 20—The Workshop at the University of Minnesota, Dr. M. K. Fort; Host, Dr. E. M. Haggard.

October 18—Breakfast—District Meeting of O.E.A.—8:00 A.M.—College Cafeteria.

November 15—Some Observations Upon Art-Treasures of Europe, Mrs. Floy Perkins Gates; Hostesses—Miss Bertha Byrns, Miss Ethyl Byrns, Miss Ruth West.

January 17—The Poetry of T. S. Eliot, Miss Vivian Downs; Hostesses, Miss Sarah Ellison, Mrs. Wanda Turner.

February 21—A Review of Virgil Scott's "The Hickory Stick," Allen Amend; Hostesses, Mrs. Floy Perkins Gates, Mrs. Evelyn Wood.

March 21—Program by student members—Election of officers—Selection of candidates for membership; Hostesses, Miss Isabel Work, Miss Blanche Harrison.

April 18—Initiation Banquet—College Cafeteria—Installation of Officers.

GAMMA SIGMA CHAPTER

*San Francisco State College,
San Francisco, California*

March 21—A pledge tea will be held for prospective new members.

April 19—An initiation dinner will be held for new members.

May 13—Gamma Sigma chapter, in conjunction with the San Francisco chapter of the California Student Teachers Association will sponsor a picnic at Sigmund Stern Grove in San Francisco.

May 24—New officers for the fall semester, 1949, will be installed.

GAMMA PSI CHAPTER

Fresno State College, Fresno, California

Oct. 21, 1948—Initial meeting.

Nov. 18, 1948—Initiation with speeches on Laureate Chapter Members by the new members.

Dec. 16, 1948—Christmas party.

Jan. 20, 1949—Guest speaker.

Feb. 24, 1949—Vote on new members and discussion of future projects and activities.

Mar. 17, 1949—Discussion on audio-visual aides.

April 21, 1949—Initiation of new members. Election of officers. Bar B-Q in the garden at the home of the Councilor.

May 6, 1949—Field trip.

May 26, 1949—Annual formal Banquet.

At the meeting of Jan. 20, 1949, we had as speaker, Mr. Horace O. Schorling who recently returned to this country from Korea, where he was a member of the American Mission to Korea on Teacher Education. In addition to showing colored slides of his trip, Mr. Schorling gave a talk on Korean problems and education.

An annual activity of Gamma Psi Chapter is a field trip in the Spring to some unusual or interesting school system. Last year we visited a wealthy modern school system. This Spring we plan to visit either a small rural school in the foothills of the Sierra Nevadas or a high school with dormitory facilities for the students. Following the school visit, there will be a picnic.

DELTA BETA CHAPTER

Kent State University, Kent, Ohio

The Delta Beta chapter of Kappa Delta Pi has outlined their spring program as follows:

April 7—First meeting of the spring quarter—election of new members.

April 21—Pledge Service—followed by a picnic lunch.

May 5—Initiation Service. Speaker as yet not selected.

May 24—Scholarship Tea.

June 2—Last meeting of the spring quarter—followed by an outdoor picnic.

DELTA THETA CHAPTER

*Sam Houston State Teachers College,
Huntsville, Texas*

The Delta Theta Chapter of Kappa

Delta Pi holds meetings on the first and third Thursday of each month. The programs from June 17, 1948 through May 5, 1949 are as follows:

June 17, 1948—Discussion of "My Favorite Elementary or Secondary Teacher" by the group. Voting on candidates for membership.

June 24, 1948—Pledging ceremony. Miss Dorothy Ann Bradley, a member, reported on "Reading Interests of the Pupils of the Huntsville High School."

July 8, 1948—Initiation of new members. Watermelon party.

July 22, 1948—Business meeting. Voting on candidates for membership.

August 5, 1948—Pledging ceremony. Mr. Brooks Parkhill gave an illustrated talk on his experiences in Denmark.

August 19, 1948—Initiation of new members. Treasurer's report. Picnic supper was held.

October 7, 1948—Voting on candidates for membership. Mr. Curtis Schatte, president, gave a review of the history of Kappa Delta Pi.

October 21, 1948—Pledging ceremony followed by Halloween party.

November 4, 1948—Initiation of new members, followed by picnic supper.

November 18, 1948—Charles Farlow, a member, gave a report on the United States National Commission to UNESCO.

December 2, 1948—Business meeting. Panel discussion on "Experiences in Practice Teaching."

December 16, 1948—The president explained the meaning of C.A.R.E. and it was voted to send three packages to college students. Christmas program and party followed.

February 17, 1949—Business meeting. Dr. Montgomery, counselor, discussed "The Crisis in Elementary Education."

March 3, 1949—Voting on candidates for membership. Panel discussion and film

strip on the topic "Teach Them All."

March 17, 1949—Pledging ceremony. Miss Ann Reed, speaker. Topic: Human Relations in the Classroom.

April 7, 1949—Initiation of new members. Picnic supper.

April 21, 1949—Election of officers. Dr. Burleson, Speaker. Topic: Our Field School in Puebla, Mexico.

May 5, 1949—Installation of Officers. Chapter Anniversary Program. Rabbi H. J. Schachtel, Speaker: Teachers Needed for Today's World.

DELTA OMICRON CHAPTER

*Central Washington College of Education,
Ellensburg, Washington*

Program Theme for the Year: Improving the Teacher Training Curriculum at Central Washington College.

Tuesday, October 12, 1948—First business meeting of the year to plan the quarter's and year's activities. General Committees were selected. A new plan for setting up committees was put into operation (see newsletter).

Thursday, November 4, 6:30 A.M.—Pledge Breakfast.

Saturday, November 13—Homecoming Luncheon for Alumni.

Sunday, January 9, 5:30 P.M.—Initiation of new members.

New members are: Olga Belzer, Wa-pato; Don Castagna, Roslyn; Wilbur Chinn, Seattle; Barbara Davis, Tacoma; Amy Legg, Kittitas; Alex McDougall, Ellensburg; Lloyd Miller, Tacoma; Delbert Pratt, Tacoma; Wesley Peach, Ellensburg; Bill Ranniger, Ellensburg; Mary Lou Shaver, Sumner.

Thursday, February 24, 6:30 A.M.—Pledge Breakfast.

Monday, February 28—Sophomore Recognition Tea.

March 7-8—Child Conference.

Featured speakers: Dr. Reginald Bell, San Francisco State College and Dr. Wendell Allen, state office of public instruction.

April—Initiation of new members.

April-May—Speakers and other planned activities by Program Committee.

May—Election of new officers: regular business meetings are held the last Tuesday of each month in Sue Lombard's East Room.

DELTA TAU CHAPTER
*State Teachers College,
Slippery Rock, Pennsylvania*

October 8—Election of New Members. Discussion of report on State Teachers College, Slippery Rock, Pennsylvania, made by committee of Pennsylvania educators.

November 5—Formal Initiation of New Members.

December 3—Group Study of Curriculum of a Pittsburgh Junior High School, supplemented by report from Delta Tau member who had taught in the school.

January 8—Proposal that Delta Tau sponsor the organization of non-member Education students into an interest group, in order that they might discuss and study problems in Education; n. b.: non-member refers to students not belonging to Kappa Delta Pi fraternity.

February 4—Further discussion of Interest group for non-members. Election of New Members. Discussion of Homeroom Guidance in Secondary Schools.

March 4—Formal Initiation of New Members. Talk on Graduate School and Advanced Degrees by Dr. Franklin, Dean of Department of Education, University of Pittsburgh.

April 1—Election of 1949-1950 Officers. Plans for Annual Banquet.

May 7—Formal Installation of New Officers. Annual Banquet.

EPSILON UPSILON CHAPTER

*Potsdam State Teachers College,
Potsdam, New York*

September 16—Opening 1948-1949 meeting at Dr. Dunn's home to plan for the year.

October 21—Pledging of new members. Panel discussion of presidential candidates.

October 28—"Soviet Education"—Mr. Armagost.

November 18—Formal Initiation of pledges. Dr. Carl West, guest lecturer, showing a collection of colored lantern slides of Western United States and Canada.

January 20—Buffet Supper and singing of Christmas carols.

March 18—Round table discussion led by the recent initiates. Subject: Religion and Public School Education.

March 22—Annual Banquet—Dr. Herman Cooper, Assistant Commissioner of Education for the State of New York, guest speaker.

March 31, 1949—Pledging of new members.

ZETA BETA CHAPTER

*University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch,
Duluth, Minnesota*

PLAN FOR KAPPA DELTA PI

1948-1949

Wednesday, October 20, 7:30—Tweed, "Social and Health Conditions in Germany," Nettie Neufeld.

Wednesday, November 3, 4:00-5:00—Tweed, Coffee Hospitality for Juniors and Seniors in Education, Miss Dorothy Smith, David Skelly, Host.

Wednesday, December 1, 7:30—Tweed, "New Children's Literature" Miss Brown.

Wednesday, January 5, 6:00—Tweed, Smorgasbord Supper and Motion Picture,

Robert Butler, Nettie Neufeld, Hostess.

Sunday, February 6, 3:30—Tweed, Tea to inform pledges, Miss St. George.

Wednesday, February 15, 6:30—Fifth Avenue Hotel—INITIATION DINNER—Dr. Wood; Marilyn Nelson, Hostess.

Wednesday, March 2, 7:30—Tweed, "Music Appreciation," Dr. Dale Miller.

Wednesday, April 6, 7:30—Tweed, "Problems Met in Early Teaching," Miss Phyllis Hanson, Miss Margaret Rickey, Miss Helen Green, Miss Mary Granquist.

Sunday, April 27, 3:30—Tweed, Tea to inform pledges, Miss Taimi Ranta.

Wednesday, May 4, 5:00—Bon Aire—INITIATION DINNER—Dr. King; Mabel Schauland, Hostess.

Wednesday, June 1, 5:00—Picnic—North Shore.

ristown, Pennsylvania; Barbara Hinchcliffe, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Else Holm, Brooklyn, New York; Veronica Jarocka, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Dorothy Kenyon, Darby, Pennsylvania; Beatrice Markwick, Westmont, New Jersey; Edna Scott, Jenkintown, Pennsylvania; Elizabeth Stevenson, Elkins Park, Pennsylvania; and Beverly Tucker, Pittsford, New York. Guests included Miss Helen Shields, Dr. Emily P. Mackinnon, and Miss Agnes Brown, faculty members of Beaver College.

"Camping in Education" was the subject of a talk given by Dr. Frederick W. Luehring, professor of physical education at the University of Pennsylvania, on April 27. He supplemented his talk with colored slides depicting the Appalachian Trail.

An initiation and banquet on May 18 completed the program for the year.

ZETA NU CHAPTER

Beaver College, Jenkintown, Pennsylvania

Since our chapter is a newly installed one, we felt it important to use the first two meetings on October 13 and November 16 for organizational purposes. At our meeting December 15, Dr. Raymond Kistler, President of the College, led an informal discussion on "Education as a Profession."

At one of the most interesting meetings of the year, Kappa Delta Pi and Honor Council jointly sponsored a talk by Mr. Robert Hubbard, a Junior at Princeton University, on the honor system there. This meeting on January 19 was open to all members of the student body.

The candidates for initiation were approved at our meeting February 16, and the formal initiation took place March 16. The new members of Zeta Nu chapter are: Jeanne Bertolet, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Lydia Davenport, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Marjorie Eisenberger, Nor-

HOUSTON ALUMNI CHAPTER

Houston, Texas

During the school year 1948-49 the Houston Alumni Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi has had programs of interest not only to educators but also to lay people in the community who are interested in education and the way in which the schools operate. An effort has been made to invite outsiders interested in the subjects under discussion. With the exception of our initiation meeting each year we do not feel that our meetings should be "closed sessions" exclusively for Kadelpians.

Our programs to date have consisted of a round table discussion on the subject "A Layman Looks at Our Schools." The guest speaker, Reverend H. Grady Hardin, associate pastor of First Methodist Church, discussed the question from two angles. 1. What is right with our schools? 2. What is wrong with our schools and how can we correct these inadequacies? A lively dis-

cussion followed this presentation.

On February fourteenth our chapter celebrated its eighth annual birthday with a formal dinner at the Plaza Hotel. The guest speaker was Dr. Hyman Judah Schachtel, senior rabbi of Temple Beth Israel. His subject was "Education and the Democratic Way of Life." Faculty mem-

bers of the University of Houston and administrators of the public schools were guests of honor. As is our custom at this meeting, a scholarship was awarded an undergraduate student in education at the University of Houston.

A picnic is planned for May. This will be the final meeting for the year.

A "Democratic" Man 2,000 Years Ago

HE SPENDS as much time and pains and money on his superfluous pleasures as on the necessary ones. . . . He sets all his pleasures on a footing of equality, denying to none equal rights and maintenance, and allowing each in turn, as it presents itself, to succeed to the government of his soul until it is satisfied. When he is told that some pleasures should be pursued and valued as arising from desires of a higher order, others chastised and enslaved because the desires are base, he will shut the gates of the citadel against the messengers of truth, shaking his head and declaring that one appetite is as

good as another and all must have equal rights. So he spends his days indulging the pleasure of the moment, now intoxicated with wine and music, and then taking to a spare diet and drinking nothing but water; one day in hard training, the next doing nothing at all, the third apparently immersed in study. Every now and then he takes a part in politics, and jumps to his feet to say or do whatever comes into his head. Or he will set out to rival someone whom he admires, a soldier perhaps, or, if the fancy takes him, a man of business.

—PLATO, in *The Republic*

Beta Iota's International Program

IN February Beta Iota chapter, Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan, had a panel discussion on education abroad by foreign students in attendance at the college. They will occupy positions as follows when they return to their own countries. Dorothy Washington, of Canada, will work in speech correction; Emily Urquiola, of Bolivia, will teach art; Chukuemeka Modu, of Nigeria, will pursue graduate work in the United States; Dominique Laurent, of France, will enter the exporting business; and Abdul Basit Naeem, of Pakistan, will write and publish in his native country.

The articles appear as given by the students on the program.

CANADA

DOROTHY WASHINGTON

In Canada the educational system is similar in a general way to that of the United States. There is compulsory education from the ages of six to sixteen; and three types of schools are found: elementary—grades one to six; junior high school—grades seven to nine; senior high school—grades ten to twelve. On completion of grade twelve, the student receives a matriculation diploma and may continue his education in college or university.

Education is under the jurisdiction of the provincial government in each of the nine provinces and, with one exception is practically the same throughout the Dominion. The province of Quebec is the exception. Here can be found two separate systems, each recognized by law, and based on a difference in religious belief. French Canadians—most of whom are Roman Catholics—conduct schools in their mother tongue. The English speaking section (largely Protestant) conducts schools in

English. The ratio of French to English in Quebec province is six to one.

Although education is on a provincial basis, there are national organizations which meet annually to discuss educational needs and problems of Canada as a whole.

BOLIVIA

EMILY UROQUIOLA

For the system of Education in Bolivia they follow many of the patterns of the European system of Education. We have first the kindergarten, the 6 years of Primary school and 6 years of Secondary school, at the end of which we receive our title of Bachelor of Humanities. The study programs for all the schools are made by the Ministry of Education and are followed with some alterations according to the desire of the teachers.

In the Primary grades most of the subjects are taught in a correlated way giving emphasis to arithmetic, reading and writing. There is only one teacher for all the subjects except for the music, art and English and gym teachers. In the Secondary school we have to take an average of 14 subjects at a time without choosing and we have from 5 to 2 times a week each one according to their importance. These courses are planned in terms of a sequence and we have a different teacher for every subject. The classes start in March and we finish in October.

In the classes there is much mutual respect between teacher and pupils. We have oral recitations and our tests are always of the essay type. The final examinations are very hard and there is a schedule whereby there are three different teachers from other schools to examine us. After graduating we go to the University for 5 to 7 years according to what your curriculum is and

here you just take subjects for your vocation. There are also special commercial and trades schools.

We start classes at 8:30 and finish at 12:00 at which time everybody goes home and we return at 2:00 to finish at 4:00.

NIGERIA

CHUKUEMKA MODU

Education in a country of about 27 million people is not a topic that can be crammed up in a very short space; nevertheless, it might be helpful to mention a few of the salient points which could interest an American.

The schools in Nigeria come under four main groups—government, private, mission and native administration schools. Native administration schools are the counterpart of American public schools but are by no means the greatest in number of the four. Schools established by the different missionary groups in Nigeria claim, by far, the greater percentage of all the schools, then come the native administration, the private and the government schools. It is remarkable to note, however, that the government gives grants-in-aid to some of the schools particularly those established by missionary or religious bodies and ignores almost completely those established by private individuals despite the fact that all the money used to maintain the mission schools is raised in Nigeria.

The number of schools do not meet the demands of children particularly those of high-school age with the result that every year thousands of children cannot gain admission in those available on account of limited accommodation even though every pupil pays school fees from kindergarten through college. The Nigerian Census of 1933 shows there were 36,626 schools. This number which has been considerably increased within the last 16 years is any-

thing but enough for the population.

Children start school between the ages of 5 and 6 and, after going through the elementary school 8 years later, are ready for high-school. Most of the schools are co-educational while some are specifically meant for either boys or girls. Ordinarily, a student remains in the high-school for 4 years and during the first year he is expected to take 9 to 14 subjects every term and continues with those subjects for the rest of the time he spends in the high-school. I might add that a school year comprises 3 terms of 3 months each with one month's vacation between the terms. Summer vacation is out of the question since there is no summer, winter, spring or autumn except the two main divisions—the dry and the wet season. Some high-schools admit students who have not completed the equivalent of the American eighth grade but in this circumstance the students may spend 6 to 5 years in the high-school depending on whether they had completed the equivalent of the sixth or the seventh grade. Before a student leaves the high-school he either takes a comprehensive examination set by either the Nigerian Education Department or Cambridge University in England. A student who passes the latter with distinction can be readily accepted in any British university where he has to spend about 3 years for his B.A. or B.Sc. honors degree in a particular subject. The same holds true if the student succeeds in getting into the university college in Nigeria. It is interesting to note, however, that studies in Medicine and Veterinary Medicine take 7 years to complete whereas such others like Engineering and Agriculture require about 4 years. It may even be that what I had heretofore designated as high-school should not be described as such. In Nigeria it is better known as secondary school or college and often students from Nigeria who enter American colleges after com-

pleting their secondary school work are given advanced credits which is very proper in view of the fact that the form work done in those secondary schools is on the whole higher than that done in an average American high-school.

On account of the diversity of languages in Nigeria, a child is very much limited as regards the part of the country he can attend school; however, by the time he enters the high-school he must have learned English sufficiently well to be able to receive instruction in it so that it then would make no difference in whichever section he goes to school. In the northern part of Nigeria where the population consists mainly of Moslems as well as in a few number of schools in the western part, Arabic is widely used—the law school not excepted.

Shortage of teachers has been quite a problem. Often, teachers quit their work on account of insufficient pay; nevertheless, there has been a marked improvement within the past 18 months and their salaries compare fairly well with those of people with equivalent qualifications in other professions. It is hoped that the present trend towards the betterment of their service conditions might help to check effectively the erstwhile exodus of teachers and also attract intelligent young people.

FRANCE

DOMINIQUE LAURENT

Education has always been the sign of culture and progress of civilization. From the dark ages, with the dim glimmer of culture kept alive in the monasteries, to our great institutions of learning of to-day, we have pushed our civilization to where it stands to-day.

The education system of a country reflects its intellectual progress, as its buildings reflect its artistic and cultural advancement: In France the education system re-

flects the thoughts of the people of France as your industry reflects your thought and culture of a technical people.

One of the oldest institutions in the world is the University of Paris. It has made Paris the center of the Western Culture. The foundation for higher learning is found in the elementary schools and high schools. The French system of education is built on a pyramid of degrees:

The French child starts his education at five. At twelve he earns his first degree. Most children obtain this first degree. From twelve to eighteen the student works toward the second degree which is more difficult to obtain than the first. After much preparation the student takes the tests: one is written, the other is oral. These tests are given by the government and are very difficult. Many fail, and only about 30% pass the second degree. If you fail you may study and try again next year.

The University is the next step. This is the goal of all the students who arrive to get their exam at the end of the second degree. During the preceding period the student has specialized more and more until he is fully prepared for the exact position which he has chosen.

The University work is the final preparation and polish for the student.

PAKISTAN

ABDUL BASIT NAEEM

The system of education in Pakistan is unique in that it has characteristics of its own, yet it is just as much similar to the educational systems of America and Europe.

The first thing that must be mentioned regarding our educational system is the fact that a great majority of the people of Pakistan belong to the Mohammedan faith, and since the religion plays a great part in formulating the various aspects of Moslems'

life, influence of and the traditional desire to retain their own culture is prevalent amongst most educational institutions as well as in the students themselves.

A child, when admitted to the elementary (or primary) school, is usually five years of age. For four years he studies at this school, learning alphabet of the native language, which is Urdu, counting, simple addition, subtraction, division, multiplication, and the different formations of land, his first lesson in geography. At this time his teachers pay special attention also to his handwriting and writing habits.

The high school has six grades in all; from kindergarten to the senior year of high school there are ten grades.* Mathematics, General Knowledge (history and geography), Science or a modern language are some of the compulsory subjects in all grades of the high school. They vary according to classification and institutions. For example, religious education is compulsory in private schools, and the government-supported schools, which are generally better-equipped, offer courses also in manual arts.

At the end of senior year, all high school students must take the University Matriculation examination, offered by a different university in each state. This examination is held at the same time everywhere, that is, in respective states, or provinces as they are generally called, according to a regular schedule. This system may seem to have certain demerits to an American educator, yet it provides the only method to keep a definite standard of qualification for all students. It is a great honor for the student who stands first in the university examination. There are bundles of scholarships, merit-certificates, medals and prizes for all top-scoring students.

Although girls and boys in Pakistan take such examinations together, they appear at

separate examination-centers and only in their respective subjects. There are very few co-educational institutions in the country; Mohammedan girls seldom attend such schools. This is true in case of both colleges and high schools. The boys go to boys' schools and colleges and the girls attend only girls' schools and colleges. In most girls' schools, certain additional courses, such as cooking, laundrying, sewing, nursing, and house-keeping, are given. This, again, has several advantages of its own, specialized training for girls in fields of their own choice being one of them. Only women, of course, teach in girls' institutions.

Pakistan students are also greatly interested in sports and athletic-games. They do not have the facilities of modern gymnasiums, but nature and clear and dry weather provide the great out-of-door play-fields for them. There are huge stadiums in larger cities, such as Lahore, Karachi. Football, basketball, volleyball, cricket, field hockey, tennis, and badminton are the men's most popular sports. Their athletic games include track races, various kinds of "jump," javelin throw, shot-put, and bicycle-races. They also like boxing, wrestling and tug-of-war, besides other more popular native games. Girls must play in secluded places, so their schools provide them with "purdah" gardens, that is, playgrounds with walls all around. Their games include hockey, tennis, badminton, and some other comparatively "light" games. If more physical education is necessary for them, they may enjoy track-races or regular physical exercises.

Social dancing and dating probably will never enter Pakistan; they must stay in West. The young Pakistanis like their own kinds of extra-curricular activities, such as picnics, stage-plays, hobby exhibitions, debates, and amateur poetical symposiums. The girls have one additional affair of their

* The school is open for six days a week.

own; Meena-bazaar, a traditional social function, usually open also to public. Since it is but a one-day (or two-day) market, arranged completely by students, where only student-made things are sold, it is somewhat similar to a show sponsored by occupational therapy girls in U.S. schools.

The boy-scout and girl-guide movements are also very popular with the students in Pakistan. They take a good part in helping the authorities in keeping order at times of need, particularly on fairs, "melas" (a village function), religious meetings and literary gatherings of which a great number are presented every year.

All schools and colleges must be affiliated with or recognized by universities in respective states, and the text-books must be the ones approved by the university-appointed text-book committee or written by members of the university-senate members themselves. Thus, university is actually the main organizing body of all educational institutions. Besides Matriculation examination, the university also offers examinations for college degrees, such as that of Bachelor's, Master's, Doctorates, and it also holds competitive examinations in other fields of knowledge, particularly languages, which include Arabic, Persian, Hindi, Sanskrit, Panjabi, English, German, French, and Greek. Each university has its own col-

leges of law and teacher-training, called central training colleges.

There are great many educational institutions in Pakistan, in all parts of the country. In Lahore, the largest educational center of Asia, there are about one hundred well-established standard educational schools, which, of course, include commercial colleges, manual and other arts colleges, and private religious schools. There is a very fine medical school, one engineering school, two teacher-training schools, and many industrial schools. Other important educational centers are Karachi, Sialkot, Dacca, Lyllpore, famous for its agricultural college, Peshawar, Rawalpindi, and Multan. A large number of our students are, at present, studying in other countries, particularly United Kingdom and the United States.

Radio, which is state-owned, also plays an important role in educating our youth. There are several programs broadcast which are only for students. However, it must be clarified in this matter that although the radio is state-owned, it is the best in the world, for it never bothers people with untimely advertising and actually its program is set and prepared by the most well-known writers and poets of the country whom people also love and trust.

(Pakistan Zindabad!)

Americans spent \$690,000,000 for foreign travel in 1947. More than three-quarters of the year's travel expenditures were in nearby North American and Caribbean countries.

About 56,000 civilian disabled men and women will be rehabilitated for self-sustaining employment during the fiscal year 1947-48, Federal officials predict. Last year the number of rehabilitated persons was 44,000.

Divergent Opinions and Social Cooperation*

J. B. SHOUSE

HAD Socrates been asked to state, in not over five words, the theme of any one of a number of his conversations (as reported by Plato) he might well have used some such words as I use this evening: *Divergent Opinions and Social Cooperation*. Or, if allowed up to twenty words, he might have put it thus: How to reduce divergent opinions to a common opinion, and so to get social cooperation without high external pressure. The theme, without the title, was certainly a persistent one with him.

And across the span of centuries it is at least as vital now as it was in his day. For in these latter days absolute government tends to raise its head, and tends, too, to expect docile following, denying right to divergent opinions and to truly voluntary cooperation. That is one reason for thinking our theme appropriate to this occasion.

There are two essential differences between Socrates' situation and this present one. You do not have a Socrates to talk to you; Socrates did not have you as audience. You are the losers; I am the one who gains in this comparison. For no group that might be assembled would be more devoted to social cooperation, and no group more given to independent thinking, than a group of members of Kappa Delta Pi. For leadership, scholarship, good will, and concern with the open mind are characteristic traits that admit one to membership in this

* Address at banquet celebrating twenty-fifth anniversary of establishment of Omega Chapter, Kappa Delta Pi, and the completion (February, 1948) of twenty-four years as Executive President, Kappa Delta Pi, by Dr. T. C. McCracken, Athens, Ohio, July 23, 1948.

Society. That fact constitutes the second reason why I deem my subject fitted to this setting.

Some years ago it was my fortune to spend a Christmas holiday in a city where I found myself within a couple of blocks of an authentic monastery. At a certain hour in the afternoon out would come young men for the daily stroll beyond the confines of their institution. Save for costume, you might have thought them a group of college students leaving campus after class. Or, under other circumstances, you might have seen such men in different uniform, going off on liberty from camp or ship. But the special costume caught the eye, a costume characterized by sandals and the heavy brown robe of their order. A costume dating, perhaps, from the beginning of the thirteenth century. But with the twentieth century cigarette also in much evidence. This combination of mediaevalism and of everyday modernism seemed to bring together incongruous elements, incongruous from the point of view of time, that is.

And it may seem to you that, in linking divergent opinions with social cooperation, I, too, have juxtaposed incongruous elements. For manifestly it is community opinion that goes with social cooperation. But I hold to my wording; it indicates the essential mark of our system. That we get social cooperation where freedom of thought is encouraged is just the point that I would emphasize.

In any democracy there must be freedom of thought; yet from it must issue uni-

fied intention and united action. The education of the future, for a free future, will lay stress on this phenomenon of incongruous elements.

For purposes of emphasis I should like to borrow, for the moment, a term from physics, and to apply it to social life. So I venture to speak of the social spectrum, meaning the whole array of major bands or forms or lines of social activity, each viewed by itself, and not as merged in the totality of social living. Perhaps there is this important difference between the light spectrum and the social spectrum, that in actual human life these several activities do not proceed without relation one to the other, merely blending into a mechanical mixture.

By way of illustration certain of these bands of social activity may be cited. First I name the activities of recreation for the reason that it seems to me to be just now the most rapidly expanding form of human activity. Then I name industrialism and commercialism, which make such heavy demands on time, attention, and energy. Let us, by all means, grow healthy and happy; let us, by all means, become wealthy enough that we may have what we really want. But how these activities do put the strain on family living! The appeals of recreation, the drafts of production and business do so much to tear the family apart!

Not only have recreation and money-making distorted family living, but they have also modified our religious and philosophical courses. The rubbing together of the major stripes of human behavior affects each of them, and creates new problems of education.

Just now we dipped into elementary science for terminology. Let us go next, for a moment, into philosophy for a connection. One of Kant's basic ideas was that human

beings have a certain constitution or construction, and they can know existence only as their peculiar construction permits or requires. William James put something of the same idea into more concrete form when he talked about the baby's world, as distinct from the adult's, and when he asked how a dog's knowledge of the world differs from our own.

I should like to go just a bit beyond these men, and point out that not only does the pattern of our *knowledge* of existence depend upon our build, but the pattern of our *living out* our own existence depends upon it.

For, just as the color bands of the light spectrum will show the characteristic lines of particular elements of chemical sort in combustion at the source of light, so the major bands of the social spectrum show the effects of our knowing, and thinking and choosing, and the profiting from experience that we do because we are so constituted that we can deviate from the given pattern. Nature has provided, in our construction, for both uniformity of general forms of social living and for diversity of detail.

We are given primary forms of living. We are given power to modify them. So the question always is: Shall we live out our major social contacts in the raw, the primitive ways, or shall we refine and purify them, civilize them? Shall recreation be developed as much along the lines of spiritual re-creation as along the lines of excitement and hilarity? Shall business be a survival of the right of private war, or shall profits be proportioned to social services actually performed?

Above all others, the social band of relations between the sexes requires refinement, for it is so intimately related to the rearing of the oncoming generation. Very recently I read, in a good magazine, a quoted quip that was seemingly aimed at wittiness:

"Jazz is the musical version of sex." Evidently it was the intention to impute the quality of raw action to relations between sexes. It would have been vastly more serviceable if we had been given some such statement as this: The musical version of the relation between men and women is to be found in the concerto or the symphony. But I suppose that would have lacked the brilliantly pungent quality of the quip as quoted.

Maybe nature did so build us that sex relations can have a musical counterpart in jazz or jungle chant, but our constitution is also such that these relations may have a very different kind of musical counterpart.

Maybe, too, we are so built that divergent opinions can lead to conflict. But life does not have to be lived in the raw here any more than in recreation or in business or in associations between men and women. Samson once coined a momentous riddle: "Out of the eater came forth meat, and out of the strong came forth sweetness." We can phrase a modern paraphrase: "Out of divergent opinions come forth cooperative actions."

That is, under certain conditions. A prominent politician said over the radio a month ago that democracy is made up of controversy, conflict, and compromise. In the July number of *Reader's Digest*, Associate Justice William O. Douglas of the Supreme Court wrote: "Our tastes in art, literature and philosophy are varied; there are differences in our political faiths, our economic theories. This diversity is our strength." But of Russia he said: "Communism . . . leaves no room for accommodation and compromise." There we see a stark difference.

So much for generalities. Now for some illustrative situations.

A picture appeared the other day in the

daily paper, a picture of an orang-utan in a St. Louis zoo. Behind the bars of his cage the animal was smoking a cigar.

That picture reminded me of a story I had read just a few days earlier. The story was based on the idea that orang-utans learn readily to do what they have seen done.

A Frenchman in Borneo saw a newspaper picture of an orang smoking a cigar. The picture was accompanied by the statement that the animal's owner was exhibiting his bright pupil-ape with good profit to himself. So the Frenchman bought an orang and proceeded to train it. Progress was rapid in the early learning stages. But then the learning curve settled into a plateau. Strong motivation would be needed to jog the learner out of the rut.

The master tethered the pupil beside a crocodile-infested stream, and sat down to wait, with loaded rifle in hand. The expected crocodile shortly raised its snout. It inched toward the fettered orang-utan. The latter struggled to get away; its desperation mounted as the crocodile came on. At the crucial moment the man shot the crocodile.

The punishment had been sufficient. The pupil seemed to get the point. He commenced once more to learn his lessons, imitating this and that of his master's actions.

There came a day when the man got drunk. The ape dragged him to the streamside, and wound him up in rope, and then sat down to wait, with rifle in hand. The expected crocodile raised its snout out of the mud and edged its way toward the man. By that time the latter was aware of what was going on; he struggled mightily to release himself. At the indicated moment the ape pointed the rifle at the crocodile, but, alas, it had never seen the master load the rifle.

At such level of social relations there is

no such thing as free thinking, and no such thing as true cooperation. There are only imposed ideas and dictated responses. In government there is absolutism, whether of monarchy or of totalitarianism.

Our next case is on a slightly higher plane. In 1946 there appeared on the book market a slender volume entitled "Animal Farm." As I read the first chapters I thought I had in my hands a childish fable in which it was related that the animals on a certain farm felt strongly that they were unduly dominated by their owner. So they devoted a Sunday afternoon to a conference behind the barn. They decided to cooperate in revolting.

It seemed a bit amusing, this idea of an animal revolt against owners. Here was, perhaps, a new Black Beauty story in which we were to see again human beings from the point of view of the animals. Or maybe it might be thought of as the Uncle Tom's Cabin of farm animals. So I read on.

The revolt was successful. The farmer fled before his rampaging animals, who thereupon became their own masters. Now it was the aggressive pig who had led the uprising, ably assisted by the faithful horse, the docile cows, and the others. He achieved leadership in the new farm situation; more and more his hoggish tendencies became evident; he became more tyrannical than the farmer had ever been; he suppressed his followers; he worked the horse to death; other protestants were liquidated in one manner or another. He finally went so far as to negotiate some kind of arrangement with the hated farmers of the community whereby he became recognized as one of them. He outdid them all in harsh attitude toward the animals under him.

It seemed to me in the end that the fable had become an implied allegory intimating that, where community opinion

serves as basis for unified action, we may reasonably expect some individual or individuals to gather all the profit of the cooperative enterprises. Moral, strictly implied, not at all expressed: Leave established orders alone; you never accomplish anything by your efforts to improve the social order. Certainly that would be a cynical view of the outcome of cooperative procedures in society. It could only be expected where the constituents of the society, having had no adequate foundation experience, are easily exploited.

Now we come to a situation much more serious in character, and one that may well be approached somewhat deviously.

In the course of many years, George Santayana, in book and essay, has often touched upon the theme of democracy. In one passage he has pointed out that democracy came naturally to America. The circumstances of natural setting and of colonizing personnel made democracy in this country almost inevitable. Democratic living led the way to democratic government.

Under such conditions there was much independent thinking and acting. All of the diversities were manifested, however, within the confines of a settled conclusion: Liberty works its way out to a cooperative social existence. In the midst of freedom of thought there is one thought that remains, and must remain, essentially unchallenged. *That one thing is the idea that we may think differently from one another about everything except the desirability of democracy.* Democracy being the postulate of our social system we deny all if we forget it. The fundamental idea must be retained, or the whole cooperative scheme of things goes to pieces. Freedom of thought and action must never fail to issue in cooperation, for this is the essence of democracy.

I should like to reduce this bit of social philosophy to the form of a principle: *Out of diverse opinions may come a compromise or agreement, without strain or danger, providing that it does not compromise or violate the basic idea of our own social coherence.* Hold that thought in mind for a moment, please.

The intellectual atmosphere of the college of half a century ago brought me into contact with the essays of Lord Macaulay. We may think today that his writing was altogether too heavy or too pompous, too suggestive of the stuffed shirt, but intellectually Macaulay was not a stuffed shirt. In those days I found him impressive.

Just recently I was reminded of one of those discussions of Macaulay when I read in the *Saturday Evening Post* of June 12 Bernard Baruch's report of an interview he had with Winston Churchill, undertaken during World War II on request of the President of the United States.

Baruch reports that Churchill, wondering about the wisdom of alliance with Russia, used these words: "But what will happen when Germany is beaten? What are we going to do with Russia afterwards?"

A century earlier Macaulay had raised and debated the question whether it is wholly sensible for a nation at war to ally itself, for the sake of needed aid, with another country if that other country is such that there is little ground for sympathy on issues other than the antagonism to a common enemy. Macaulay brought himself to the conclusion that it would be folly to avoid an alliance under such circumstances.

I think that Santayana would have been a better adviser than Macaulay on this matter of alliance with Russia during the late war. Santayana might have said something like this: "Watch out. If the contracting parties have the same basic prin-

ciples of social life and government, very well. Minor differences will not be disastrous of themselves. But wartime stresses will be pretty sure to develop situations that will become postwar problems, and if these problems cannot be solved on the grounds of common faith in the same ultimate principles, then there will be real trouble. *Don't make an agreement that compromises the very heart of your national life."*

But we went ahead and undertook co-operative action with Russia on the basis of common hostility to Germany. We did so in spite of known differences between Russia and ourselves on basic ideas. We tried to argue ourselves into the belief that Russia was democratically inclined, even if she did not express democracy in our manner. That was a subterfuge. We are now reaping the harvest.

Although communism seems to be the current point of disagreement, I venture to doubt that it is. The real difference is one of principle of government. I cite the fact that England just now is following an economic policy that is much at variance with our own. But England's fundamental governmental principle is democracy. On this basic idea our system is in harmony with England's. So we manage to get along with England, but find it well-nigh impossible to keep the peace with Russia.

Cannot a communism exist in a democracy? Under the Marx-Lenin concepts it cannot. That is the very essence of the Russian idea, a government dedicated to economic communism above all other things. With us, democracy is first principle; an economy of private enterprise is certainly not better than second. But in Russia the economic policy comes first; a supporting and forcing government comes second.

We have had limited communisms in this country, voluntary, based on religious conviction, without denial of democracy.

But we cannot tolerate the thought of a communism, or any other factor in social life, which would override democracy. That is why our wartime alliance was a failure, so far as continued harmony is concerned.

We see so clearly that communism has been imposed on peoples that it is hard for us to believe that anyone would seek it with hope. But there may be such people, and we hear the apology that the common folk of Russia have been better off under communism than under the rule of czars. People who believe that, and who seek liberty and prosperity, assume that they can win their goal through communism.

The Burmese may serve as illustration of such peoples. Listen to this from *Newsweek* of June 28: "One Far Eastern expert (of the British Foreign Office) explained: 'To the younger Burmese leaders freedom, prosperity, and Marxism are synonymous. None of them ever really studied Marxist or Communist doctrine. The Burmese are not really interested in money, and propertied interests have always been identified with foreigners—British, Indians, or Chinese. What most of the Burmese would like is to get rid of the foreigners, and withdraw from the world.'"

We know that such hope of liberty through communism is in vain, unless someone devises a communism which can exist, on national scale, within and subordinate to, democracy. That has never yet been accomplished.

In earlier times Europeans could get out from under rule which they regarded as oppressive by coming to the United States. That is no longer possible, except for limited numbers. Freedom is not now to be found by emigration from home land; if to be had at all, freedom now has to be made at home. Communism of the Russian type will not make free men. As I read

recently: "You cannot have both strict regimentation and sparkling initiative."

In the very beginning I mentioned Socrates. No discussion of the play of opinions can afford to overlook his work. So it is in order that we examine that work just a little more.

For a long time now we have been accustomed to an interpretation based on evidence supplied by Plato. It has often been asserted that Socrates believed that, by process of critically comparing opinions, it would be possible to arrive at universal truths. If we do not care to talk about such a matter as universal truth, we can at least say that Socrates appears to have regarded individual opinion, based on limited experience and poorly founded knowledge, as capable of improvement through the process mentioned. Let us put it this way, that the best possible search for truth, within the areas of Socrates' interests, is through the process of critical examination of opinions. Civic virtue was probably the area of Socrates' greatest interest. We may well grant, even today, that best judgment on social issues can be reached through the opinion-comparing procedure, bringing to the comparison all available pertinent information.

Stated in some such way, Socrates' problem was very much like our own. Granting freedom of thought and discussion, with sturdy putting of the finger upon the weaknesses of the opinions parading before us, it is true that cooperative thinking about divergent opinions in social fields may lead not only to unified opinion, but also to co-operative action. The education of the future will rely very largely on such process within the specified area.

It is interesting to note some recent material on the search for truth. I have in mind P. A. Sorokin's discussion in his *Social and Cultural Dynamics*. He

posit three types of truth, or possibly only three ways of seeking truth; I confess that I am not entirely sure which he means. He probably intends to do no more than to assert that there have been claims that truth is establishable by each of these three modes. He mentions the truth of faith, the truth of reason, the truth of science. I suppose that truth of reason was pretty much what Socrates was seeking.

Now Sorokin sees each type of truth, or each procedure in seeking truth, as characteristic of a corresponding type of culture. The relative ranks of the three types of culture vary, and consequently the relative standings of the three procedures. At the present time we are in the heyday of what Sorokin calls sensate culture; we seek truth most largely through the processes of experimentation, exact measurement, careful recording. It follows, as corollary to that proposition, that the currently predominant sensate culture tends to deemphasize the concept of faith-attained truth, intuition-attained truth, and the like. Sholem Asch, in *The Nazarene*, has given expression to such tendency. The words might be used in the twentieth century, even if supposed (in the story) to have been uttered in the time of Christ. For he has a hard-headed Roman officer say this: "I grant that faith exists for the purpose of making the incredible appear credible."

But, given a reversion to ideational culture (and Sorokin thinks ultimate reversion probable), we would expect the pen-

dulum of the search for truth to swing once more more strongly to the beat of faith. But waiting in expectation of shift in type of culture is not a profitable game to play. It takes too long a time. We are concerned that education should help us here and now to realize the possibilities of all the modes of mental life, the values inherent in each, neglecting none.

I hope you observe, that, here at the end, we have momentarily shifted ground. Where we were talking about major bands of *social* activity, we now speak of the different modes of *mental* activity.

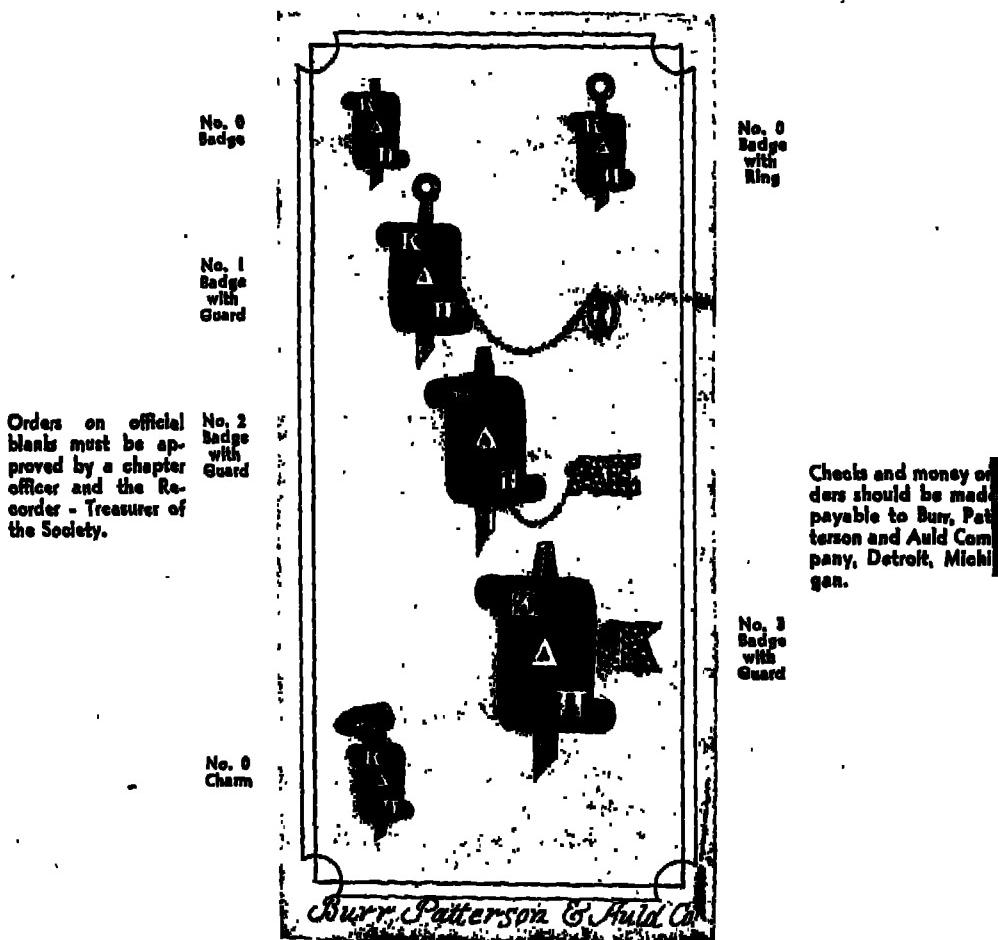
We believe in a social program that capitalizes on divergent opinions. We want a hospitable climate for opinion. We also need a hospitable climate for all the varieties of mental life, from faith to science and back again to faith. Faith in an idea, James used to say, can help create a fact. Faith in ideas about improved social living must help to create the improvement. There will be no effective freedom of thought if we spoof at faith's belief in the ideas that thinking produces. There will be no effective social cooperation if we are skeptical about the possibilities thereof. Work without faith is dead before it is performed.

Faith, reason, science. Or, in the familiar words of the ritual, science, humanity, service, toil. I hope you see that, in talking in the terms that I have followed, I have been talking all of the time about Kappa Delta Pi and its view of future living in these United States.

Although the data for the 1947 births are not yet in, provisional figures show that last year's birth rate set a new high (nearly 4,000,000) compared with the 1946 figure (3,470,000).

The Commerce Department says that the selling price of the average new house climbed to \$9,060, or 104% over the 1939 cost. . . . Price of lumber increased 183 percent during the same period.

OFFICIAL INSIGNIA OF KAPPA DELTA PI



PRICE LIST

TAXES

Badges

Badge	Size	Size	Size	Size
Badge with ring at ...	No. 0	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3
Charm	\$3.50	\$4.50	\$6.00	\$7.50

Guard Pins

	Single Letter	Double Letter
Plain	\$2.25	\$ 3.50
Crown Set Pearl	\$6.00	\$10.00

To prices quoted must be added a Federal tax on jewelry of twenty per cent. In addition a use or occupation tax is charged in some states as indicated: Alabama, 2%; Colorado, 2%; Illinois, 2%; Iowa 2%; Kansas, 2%; Michigan, 3%; North Dakota, 2%; Ohio, 3%; South Dakota, 2%; Utah, 2%; Wyoming, 2%. Since state taxes vary from time to time, officers should make a check on the taxes in their own states to determine the amount which must be paid.

